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RELATIONSHIP OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT, JOB INVOLVEMENT,
AND GENERATIVITY TO INTEREST IN MENTORING AMONG RETIREES

A Dissertation
Presented to
the Graduate School of
Clemson University

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy
Industrial-Organizational Psychology

by
Miranda Marie Pelkey
May 2017

Accepted by:
Dr. Mary Anne Taylor, Committee Chair
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ABSTRACT

The aging workplace is becoming a focus for organizations around the United States, as the Baby Boomer generation is rapidly approaching retirement. This is concerning due to the talent that will be lost and demographic and educational shifts suggesting that organizations will be challenged to replace this talent. There are, however, options for retired workers that may serve to be beneficial for both the organization and retiree. An option growing in popularity is bridge employment, where retired individuals engage in work post-retirement. Organizations can use this trend of bridge employment to their advantage by determining which factors influence retirees to engage in mentoring, since this allows retirees to transfer their knowledge to a new group of workers. Firms may also benefit by predicting who in their organization will be most likely to come back to work for them.

The present study sought to learn more about the relationships of organizational, work-related, and personality oriented variables to interest in mentoring among retirees, more specifically organizational commitment, job involvement and generativity. 220 retired, formally white-collar individuals were recruited through Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) and took a survey assessing their degree of affective organizational commitment and job involvement towards their former job, along with their level of generativity and willingness to mentor at their former place of employment in a similar occupation or a different place of employment in a similar occupation. Results indicated that the willingness to mentor is influenced by generativity for all participants and the interactions between affective commitment and generativity and job involvement and

generativity for participants over the age of 60. Results also showed significant main effects of organizational preference, affective commitment, and job involvement on willingness to mentor in participants over the age of 60.

The results of this study will advance the area of bridge employment and mentoring research and provide valuable information to organizations who hope to retain older workers passed retirement age and recruit retirees to help bridge knowledge and skill gaps.

DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my parents, Bob and Karen, and siblings, Robert and April, who have supported me throughout my academic journey and always motivated me to strive for excellence. I will forever appreciate all they have done for me. I also dedicate this to my Papa, who instilled in me the “magic of believing” and that no goal is impossible to achieve. Finally, I dedicate this to all my mentors, who have inspired me and shown that with perseverance and determination, anything can be accomplished. None of this would have been possible without all of you.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This dissertation could not have been written without my advisor, Dr. Mary Anne Taylor. I am grateful for her guidance and encouragement throughout the process of this research. I would also like to thank my committee members, Dr. Patrick Rosopa, Dr. Fred Switzer, and Dr. Thomas Zagenczyk for their insightful comments and suggestions. I would like to extend my appreciation to Tiffany Cooper, Anton Sytine, Dana Verhoeven, and Chloe Wilson for their friendship, support, and willingness to be my second pair of eyes while writing this dissertation. Finally, thank you to Joann Demos and Sarah Taylor for their generous help with the literature search and to all members of the Clemson Psychology Department who have offered their support throughout my time at Clemson.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Retirement predictions indicate an overwhelming increase in retired workers in the next decade (Wheaton & Crimmins, 2012), and this phenomenon presents a challenge to organizations who will be forced to make changes accordingly. Baby boomers, described as the generation born between 1946 and 1964, are coming into their retirement years, leaving fewer workers with the skills necessary to transition into vacant positions. Ten thousand baby boomers are eligible for retirement each day (Laing, Poitier, Ferguson, Carraher, & Ford, 2009). In fact, it was predicted in 2006 that the retirement of the Baby Boomer generation would be one of the biggest issues human resource departments had to deal with in the next decade (Young, 2006). It is expected in 2020 there will be over 71 million baby boomers, and half of the workforce will be over the age of 55 (Rappaport, Bancroft, & Okum, 2003). As of 2015, there were 56.9 million baby boomers over the age of 55 and 45 million were still in the workforce. Thus, as an age group there is a need to replace them and their knowledge with newer generations (Pew Research Center, 2016). This newer wave of workers could benefit from the knowledge and experience carried by the exiting wave of employees due to the knowledge and skill gap from not being in the workforce or working for an organization; the transfer of knowledge held from the exiting workforce to younger generations would also be beneficial to the organization as a whole by alleviating excess trainings and lessening the learning curve (Truxillo & Fraccaroli, 2013).

Other demographic shifts suggest that older workers may be willing to extend their work life, under certain conditions. Recent statistics suggest that the health of older individuals is healthier than ever. The life expectancy of older adults has increased by an average of six years longer for those turning 65 in 2030 compared to those who turned 65 in 1970, according to the Urban Institute analysis of Social Security Administration data. This physical well-being is matched by an interest in continued employment past traditional retirement age. The Bureau of Labor Statistics reported the percentage of retired-aged adults who desire to work increased 11% from 1994 to 2014, demonstrating that baby boomers are working and want to work until older ages.

The wave of older individuals from the workforce and the subsequent demands on human resources at firms is exacerbated by skill differentials in the boomers and younger generations. Though baby boomers are collectively outnumbered, the gap in expertise between baby boomers and the millennial generation (individuals born between 1979 and 1994) is large, and there are not enough skilled workers to replace the retirees. Having the two different generations in the workforce can have many implications for organizations (Chaudhuri & Ghosh, 2012). In fact, many organizations are concerned about losing a significant part of their workforce. Millennials and Generation X are going to be put on the fast track to leadership due to companies losing top talent to retirement (Truxillo & Fraccaroli, 2013). The success of this transition may be enhanced by allowing younger employees access to older mentors who may serve as a source of information and advice on these demanding jobs. Several researchers have suggested that older workers and those entering retirement are a valuable resource for organizations and

they could benefit from finding ways of keeping those employees (Dohm, 2000; Peterson & Spiker, 2005).

While there are economically compelling reasons for considering older workers as an important resource for companies, research suggests that they need to understand the unique motivation of this demographic in order to successfully recruit or retain them. Thus, there is evidence that there are psychologically compelling reasons to study the return to work. Older workers who are of retirement age or who have chosen to retire often opt to continue participating in the work force (Kim & Feldman, 2000). According to Doeringer (1990), half of U.S. workers retire at the age of 60, however only 11% of retired workers have completely ceased to work. This means many older workers who officially retire end up working again, either at their old firm or in other occupations. Specifically, research has indicated that over 70% of workers continue paid work after retirement, and this is only expected to increase in the approaching years (Giandrea, Cahill, & Quinn, 2009; Quinn, 2010). Because so many older adults acknowledge that bridge employment is a viable option for retirement, the trend of bridge jobs is expected to increase (Quinn, 2000; Ruhm, 1990).

At the organizational level, researchers can help guide organizational efforts at recruiting and retaining older workers by examining the impact that various human resources policies and programs have on attracting older workers (Beehr & Bennett, 2014). There are significant implications regarding staffing as baby boomers grow close or enter retirement that organizations should be very concerned with, yet research in this area is sparse.

A variety of options are chosen by those who are interested in continuing work. In the first segment, we explore these options under the general framework of “bridge employment.” This term refers to the choice of older workers to continue employment in some form. This work may vary in terms of the amount of time (part time or full time), the location (new firm or former firm) and occupation (former occupation or new occupation). The motivation to continue in the same position as a mentor is the focus of the current study. Further, because our interest centers on the continuation of highly skilled work and the transfer of this knowledge to younger workers, the focus is on white-collar employees.

In order to compete for highly skilled older employees, organizations need to appreciate the personal and organizational factors that may predict interest in bridge employment and in mentoring as a particular form of bridge employment. Prior research suggests that a variety of psychologically and organizationally relevant factors may predict interest in continued employment, particularly that of mentoring, among older white collar employees. Central to the current study is generativity, a psychological variable that has been associated with work engagement in later career employees (McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1993). Generativity or the need to give back in some way may predict interest in bridge employment given that continued employment is one means of passing along expertise or knowledge. We will explore the nature of this construct and its potential utility as a predictor of mentoring in the second segment. Finally, we turn to the work and organizational factors of organizational commitment and job involvement as predictors of mentoring in one’s former or different firm.

In the next segment, we explore varieties of bridge employment and move to a discussion of mentoring as a particular form of this type of continued employment. Interest in mentoring is the major dependent variable in the current study, and represents a bridge employment option with high potential for benefiting both individuals and firms.

Bridge Employment

Bridge employment, which is the “employment that takes place after a person’s retirement from a full-time position but before the person’s permanent withdrawal from the workforce” (Kim & Feldman, 2000), has become increasingly popular in the last decade, as U.S. workers are living far beyond the retirement age and have much more to contribute to the workforce. As noted earlier, this is viewed as a transitional process into full retirement and can occur in a variety of ways (Wang et al., 2008). For the purposes of this study, bridge employment will be operationalized as “a longitudinal workforce participation process between one’s retirement decision and entering full retirement” (Wang & Shultz, 2010). Older workers may retire from their career job and begin a bridge job, in which they never enter full retirement (Shultz, 2003), or may have multiple bridge jobs prior to the decision to fully retire (Shultz, 2003; Zissimopoulos & Karoly, 2009). Twenty percent of participants in a study conducted by Ruhm (1990) left their career job prior to age of 50, and 50% left prior to age 60, briefly entered retirement, then obtained a bridge job, waiting ten to fifteen years before fully retiring. Phased retirement and partial retirement are two types of bridge employment options that older workers may engage in. Phased retirement is defined as a “reduced work commitment with one’s

current employer” (Kantarci & VanSoest, 2008), while partial retirement is “reduced work commitment working for a new employer” (Kantarci & VanSoest, 2008).

As it is an adaptive mode of retirement for some individuals, bridge jobs provide opportunities for those who have retired to participate in reduced work and may fulfill a psychological component of easing into a changed lifestyle (Hannsson, DeKoekkoek, Neece, & Patterson, 1997).

Influences on Bridge Employment

As previously mentioned, there are many contributing factors to the decision of whether to forego retirement and participate in bridge employment. Early research in this area focused on simple demographic predictors of the decision. These individual-level factors have been shown to significantly predict retirement decisions (Barnes-Farrell, 2003). Age is a commonly studied influence of choosing a bridge job, given the inverse relation of age and interest in bridge employment (Adams & Rau, 2004; Kim & Feldman, 2000). Education is another individual-level factor that has been frequently studied and shown to be related to bridge employment decisions (Wang et al., 2008). Those with higher education levels are more likely to accept a bridge job rather than retire (Wang et al., 2008). This interest may be moderated by the opportunities available to older employees (Wang et al., 2009). In regards to gender, men are more likely to participate in bridge employment than women (Davis, 2003; Wang et al., 2008); women are more likely to plan for and engage in leisure and volunteer activities. Finally, income may be a major determinant of interest to return to work. Those with lower incomes and less access

to financial resources are more likely to engage in bridge employment than to enter full retirement (Wang, Zhan, Liu, & Shultz, 2008); salary and finances have been shown to be negatively related to returning to work. This argues that companies may need to explore particularly appealing options in order to recruit white collar retirees back into the workforce.

While the research on demographic predictors of interest in bridge employment allows us to understand which individuals may be motivated to return to work, it offers little to understanding the underlying dynamics of this decision. Researchers have generated theories of the meaningfulness and significance of both work and retirement as a way to clarify the motivations underlying return to work among older retirees.

While research suggests that those with reasonable financial security and health are happy in retirement, the transition may pose challenges for some but not all retirees. Continuity theory suggests that post-retirement, people need to continue daily activities in order minimize stress and ease the adjustment from routine to a life without structure (Atchley, 1989). Thus, this perspective would suggest that post-retirement satisfaction as well as interest in returning to work would depend in part on the ability to meet important needs that had been satisfied at work in the post-retirement environment. It has been found that older workers who retire may find comfort in participating in activities that bring them joy, such as volunteer work or leisure hobbies. For those whose self-worth is closely associated with work or whose self-identification is strongly tied to their careers, they may desire to seek more work to fulfill continuity needs, which could lead to part-time employment or bridge employment (Atchley, 1989). Retired individuals also need to

maintain or foster social relationships, which may also be satisfied through bridge employment, as well as other daily activities. While most retired individuals are happy in retirement, an abrupt transition from work to retirement may lead to stress; bridge employment can slow the transition.

When older adults make the decision to participate in bridge employment, doing so on their own terms is preferable (Wang et al., 2008). Older adults want to have control over the job they are working on, who they are working with, and where they work, along with having an impact on their family, community, and/or society (Quinn, 2000; Ulrich, 2003). Thus, flexible part time options are usually strongly preferred by white collar retirees.

Along with continuity theory, bridge employment decisions may be influenced by other motivating factors. While not the focus of the current study, a brief discussion of financial factors is needed based on our choice of white collar participants. Financial reasons are one of the most commonly studied factors when examining bridge employment interest and are crucial in the decision to return to work (Mor-Barak, 1995). Inadequate retirement planning may influence retirees to return to work because the extra income may be necessary or desired for his/her preferred lifestyle. Those earning higher salaries or benefits leading up to retirement are less likely to return to work (Wang et al., 2008). On the other hand, the opposing circumstance of earning lower salaries has not been shown to greatly influence bridge employment either; financial necessity alone is not enough to motivate an individual to participate in bridge employment (Dendinger et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2008).

Personal and Organizational Benefits of Bridge Employment

Bridge employment research has grown in the past decade, though most has focused on predictors of bridge employment over the outcomes and benefits of such employment (Wang & Shultz, 2010). The personal benefits of bridge employment are substantial, as workers who participate in this type of work have been shown to have increased life satisfaction, satisfaction with retirement, and higher well-being (Kim & Feldman, 2000). There is a need to understand which types of employment may be associated with these positive outcomes, since some forms of work are more enriched than others and offer greater opportunity for satisfaction of intellectual, social, and generative needs. For many retirees, going to work may have been the driving force that kept them physically, mentally, and socially engaged. Without having a job to go to everyday, some retirees lose many social ties made in the work environment as well as any mental stimulation they might have had. This loss of social ties, and mental stimulation can lead to complications such as mental health issues and physical diseases (Siegler, Bosworth, & Elias, 2003). In a longitudinal study done on bridge employment and retirees health, it was found that choosing to engage in bridge employment instead of fully retiring after leaving a job resulted in fewer major diseases as well as fewer functional limitations, however it is important to acknowledge that health issues are also a precedent to retirement. Research also suggested that there were fewer mental health issues when engaging in bridge employment after retirement (Zhan, Wang, Liu & Shultz 2009). Adults participating in bridge employment also report feeling better about themselves emotionally and physically and are able to have more balanced lives (Zhan et

al., 2009). This can be very impactful information to those thinking of retiring without continuing any kind of work.

Organizationally, employees who participate in bridge employment have lower absenteeism and turnover than younger employees and can also serve as mentors for individuals moving up in the role and organization (Warr, 1994). Bridge jobs are thought as a way of contributing more to the world and may add meaning to their lives. Adults report fewer stressors, since they are able to work in the job they love without concerning themselves with promotions.

Bridge jobs may satisfy a variety of social and generative needs for some individuals, but organizations are affected by bridge employment decisions as well. Assuming an older worker is coming back to the same organization, employers could reduce or avoid the costs of paying retiree pensions (Beehr & Bennett, 2014) and in turn, pay higher wages and increase profits to owners (Beehr & Bennett, 2014). Examining the interest among late career employees or retirees in continued employment may also aid in workforce planning and may help firms deal with the forecast shortages in skilled labor (Beehr & Bennett, 2014).

Given the benefits of bridge employment at the personal and organizational level and the forecast need for skilled employees, organizations may benefit from understanding the forces that lead a retiree to reenter the workforce. Prior research suggests there are four categories that help lead older individuals to decide on bridge employment: social, personal, financial, and generative (Wang et al., 2008). When an

individual chooses to work, although financially they can retire, they often have strong affective commitment to their coworkers, their occupation, and their organization. While disengagement theory suggests that such positive affect can coexist with a happy retirement if individuals find satisfactory substitutes for work rewards, it stands to reason that financially comfortable individuals will be more likely to be interested in returning to positive work environments, particularly if they feel that they can “give back” to younger employees or to their profession or their firm. In the current study, we focus on organizational commitment as an external force or “pull” that may lead retirees to reenter the workforce. Generativity and work involvement will be examined as psychosocial predictors of the return to work. Organizational commitment has been strongly related to organization-based bridge employment, where occupational commitment relationships are inconclusive (Gobeski & Beehr, 2009). We believe this may stem from the fact that general bridge employment is less relevant to work attachment than more psychologically stimulating and involved options such as mentoring. Thus, we explore mentoring as a particular form of bridge employment that may be more strongly related to these affective reactions to the firm, to work, and to the idea of leaving a legacy for younger workers.

Mentoring

Often, older workers will take on bridge work that is consistent with their interests and values (Erdogan, Bauer, Peiro, & Truxillo, 2011). Bridge employment is employment that occurs after a person’s retirement from a full-time position but before the person’s permanent withdrawal from the workforce (Kim & Feldman, 2000). It has been reported that those working in bridge jobs would prefer to mentor younger employees and invest

in the future of the company than advance their own careers. They also want work that is interesting and valuable because full retirement is a suitable alternative option (Deal, 2007). This may indicate a change in job or work environment. Ultimately, when unrestricted by financial necessity, bridge employment becomes more of a free choice to further their skills and leave an impression and impact on others (Beehr & Bennett, 2014). Given the research reviewed on generativity and how its effects at work may be moderated by affective reactions to work and to the firm, it seems likely that organizations may be able to generate options for continued work that meet these conditions in order to optimize their workforce. Mentoring programs may be one of the best options for firms interested in continuing the employment of experienced older employees.

Mentoring relationships, whether formal or informal, appear to be prevalent in white collar professions. Newer employees tend to fall into a mentee role with a more experienced employee, and these relationships have been shown to be generally positive (Broder-Singer, 2012). As noted in later segments of this paper, there is some evidence that certain job-related factors, such as an individual's level of organizational commitment and job involvement, may lead older individuals to want to participate in bridge employment in order to mentor. It is likely that the links between occupational factors and mentoring are impacted by more personal characteristics and the decision to mentor after retirement. Below, we will examine mentoring as a specific form of bridge employment, along with exploring the influence of work and job commitment and generativity on the decision to mentor.

Buyens and colleagues (2008) conducted a study that sought to understand future career preferences of older workers; if they are to work post-retirement, it is important to understand the conditions in which they want to work. A factor analysis of older workers' responses indicated that there were three major factors that preferences may fall under: working less or working part-time, career-preservation preferences, and career-expanding preferences. When exploring career-expanding preferences more deeply, it was found that these workers want to expand their expertise and use it to mentor or coach their younger colleagues. Further, employers of older workers recognized the value of older workers' knowledge and expertise, which could become beneficial to the company if the decision to utilize that knowledge in mentoring and training. Thus, both employers and retirees may be attracted to mentoring options. In order to understand this bridge employment alternative, we define and explore alternatives within the area of mentoring.

Definitions in Mentoring Research

Mentoring is operationalized as a “reciprocal relationship in a work environment between an advanced worker and a beginner (protégé) aimed at promoting the career development of both” (Kram, 1985; Haggard, Dougherty, Turban, & Wilbanks (2011); Healy & Welchert, 1990; Ragins & Kram, 2007). This may also include feedback to the mentee on their future career plans (Kram, 1985). Other terms such as guide, sponsor, teach, coach, and role model are often used to describe a mentor (Johnson, 2002). The purpose of this relationship for the mentor is achieving generativity (Healy & Welchert, 1990), while the protégé focuses on development.

Mentoring may be a formal or informal relationship, however for the purposes of this study, we will focus on the former. This is because organizations would be able to recruit retired workers for a specific purpose; informal mentoring often occurs naturally in a professional or social setting (Chao, Walz, Gardner, 1992; Ragins, Cotton, & Miller, 2000). Formal mentoring relationships are those that are developed with intention and are specifically set up by the organization and follow predetermined guidelines and goals (Armstrong, Allinson, & Hayes, 2002). This is a relationship between a more senior mentor and a less experienced mentee, in which they are matched to facilitate the transfer of organizational knowledge and help with the advancement of the mentee's career (Chao, 2009; Wanberg et al., 2003). One major goal of the mentor in this role is to increase the mentee's organizational commitment and intention to stay with the company, in hopes of them advancing to a more leadership-oriented position (Hall & Smith, 2009; Ragins et al., 2000). These types of relationships also typically last for a prearranged time. Expectations for mentors and protégés are clearly defined and both are held accountable for the relationship. The benefits of mentoring are reliant on the organization having employees who desire to serve as a formal mentor because not all experienced and highly knowledgeable employees want to mentor (Ragins & Cotton, 1993). Formal mentoring programs may be successful when recognition of mentors is a component, along with follow up by the organization on the mentoring relationships.

When mentoring programs are adopted within an organization, the primary functions are typically career-related or psychosocial focused. Career mentoring serves as a mean to become more successful in the organization (Ragins & Cotton, 1999) and

provides advice and assistance in enhancing the mentees professional development. This may include coaching or challenging workers with difficult assignments (Kram, 1985). Psychosocial mentoring strives to increase self-efficacy in order to help individuals develop as an employee (Ragins & Cotton, 1999), and the mentor serves as a role model and support system for the mentee. Career mentoring is related to more objective outcomes like promotions or other forms of career success (Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, and Lima, 2004). Different mentors may be more drawn to providing one type of mentorship over another, while protégés may be more likely to seek or receive one type (Allen, 2003). Though the present study will not formally make the distinction between career and psychosocial mentoring, it is important to recognize that different mentoring relationships incorporate different content and may differ by occupation and other dyadic factors.

There are several instances of organizations that have adopted mentoring programs in white collar professions, especially with older adults in mentor roles, which have been shown to be successful. The National Senior Mentor Program Evaluation utilized archival data and data collected during site visit interviews with medical school mentors (Eleazer, Stewart, Wieland, Anderson, Simpson, 2009). Senior Mentor Programs (SMP) are an intervention in U.S. medical schools, such as Ohio State University and University of South Carolina, that utilize older adults in the community to serve as teachers and models to facilitate the learning of geriatrics and general medical school curricula objectives. These programs varied in length of mentor/mentee contact, target objectives, and degree of integration into medical school curriculum. Half of the

evaluated SMP programs were formal, while the other half informal. The formal relationships included scheduled luncheons, lectures, modules, or orientations. The latter programs emphasized the mentor/mentee relationship and spontaneous learning. The medical schools aligned the mentoring program with organization and educational objectives. To qualify as a mentor, the individual was required to be 65 years old or older, while most mentors were in their 70's or 80's, and they were recruited through retirement communities and geriatric or primary-care practices. The evaluations of these programs were positive, demonstrating that mentoring programs are easy to operate, low in costs, adaptable to different environments and situational factors, influence community perceptions, greatly benefit the mentor, mentee, and medical school as a whole.

Another study assessed a ten week long intergenerational mentoring program (Wilson, Cordier, & Whatley, 2013), where older males offered support to younger males who were identified as being likely to benefit from such a program. Though the mentees in this study were adolescent boys, results are still mirror an older and younger mentor-mentee relationship. Researchers aimed to learn about the experience through the mentors' perspective to understand their motivation to mentor, the role that they played in the relationship, and their experience as a mentor. Mentors were all retired or partially retired and between the ages of 60 and 75. A variety of previous white collar occupational roles were included in the sample, such as senior manager and high school principal. Mentoring enabled the retired participants to fill a void developed through leaving their occupation to enter retirement by doing something meaningful. Participants also indicated that they were very inclined to give back to the community and do good.

The authors found that informal meetings between mentors and mentees were more preferable to both parties than formal one-on-one meetings. Overall, the mentors reported an overwhelmingly positive experience and were satisfied with engaging tasks and the opportunity to help younger individuals (Wilson et al., 2013).

Clemson University designed a similar mentoring program to help undergraduate business students. Mentors were individuals in business-related industries. In this program, mentors were assigned one to two mentees, matched through a mentoring software system. Time commitments, expectations, and communication preferences vary between each mentor partnership, though the mentoring relationship lasts a minimum of one academic year. There currently isn't available data to evaluate the effectiveness, but this program provides a useful blueprint for mentoring.

Benefits of Mentoring

Though mentoring is often thought to provide the most benefits to the protégé, it may also be beneficial to the mentor. In fact, research has shown that there is reciprocity in mentoring relationships (Kram, 1985; Allen, 2006). Since mentors will be coming back to work or delaying retirement in order to enter a mentoring relationship, it is crucial to identify why retirees would be attracted to this option of bridge employment. Before mentioning the organizational benefits of mentoring programs and mentoring itself, individual benefits must first be explained. Recently retired individuals are in a transitional phase of life and the positives associated with mentoring may help ease the transition and adjustments, while also helping the younger mentee. Research suggests for males, the transition into retirement is one of the most difficult and significant life

transitions (Earle, Earle, & von Mering, 1995); these individuals move from an expert employee to a beginner retiree (Jonsson et al., 1997). Without a sense of purpose and work identity, retirees may feel depressed, disengaged, and develop health issues, particularly if work is a critical part of their self-concept (Hewitt, Howie, & Feldman, 2009). To remedy this, retirees may engage in a variety of options ranging from bridge employment to volunteering, and through mentoring they find a sense of identity and new meaning to life by helping other (Hewitt et al., 2009). The mentor-mentee relationship is generally structured so that the mentee receives support in an area of expertise or interest of the mentor (Wilson et al., 2013). Mentors have also expressed that the enthusiasm and imagination embodied in younger generations is helpful to them in their old age (Wilson et al., 2013).

Mentoring, ultimately, enables the mentor to give back to mentees and the organization, which leads to personal satisfaction. Mentors are also able to pass on their knowledge, allowing them to recognize the value of their intelligence, experiences, and skills. Older workers have also been shown to have fewer accidents, less absenteeism, and be highly committed to the organization, which would be valuable as a model to younger employees (Kart, 1994; Dendinger et al., 2005; Weckerle & Shultz, 1999). Even further, mentors have expressed that mentoring leads to personal gratification, the opportunity to develop interpersonal relationships, and better managerial skills (Eby & Lockwood, 2005). Since some retirees have claimed to want social interactions and that being an aspect of their work that they miss, the link between mentoring and increased social interactions may be highly persuasive in influencing bridge employment decisions

(Liu et al., 2009). Thus, mentoring may fulfill generative and social needs for some individuals. Given that these can be met through other outlets such as volunteering, organizations should try to create an environment that is attractive and competes with these alternatives. The benefits of mentoring for firms are increasingly important given forecast shortages in critical skills and knowledge.

The retirement of millions of Baby Boomers is forcing companies to retain the knowledge and experience of older workers. Many organizations are suggesting mentoring programs as a method of filling talent gaps between older workers who are or have retired and younger employees (Truxillo & Fraccaroli, 2013), as they are “direct opportunities for knowledge sharing” (Truxillo & Fraccaroli, 2013). Protégé and mentor relationships could not only help passing knowledge and talent down to younger generations, but also provide numerous benefits to an organization. Mentoring serves as an effective approach to creating, organizing, and distributing knowledge (Allen, 2003). The time needed for knowledge transfer to occur is shortened as well through mentoring relationships because there is direct access to experts, thus promoting rapid learning. Learning through mentoring occurs in ways that training programs or manuals cannot, while enhancing productivity and helping employees align to business strategy (Rouen, 2012). Mentor programs are a cost-effective method of developing talent and increasing the organization’s overall effectiveness (Herrera, 2016). Top talent in the organization will be engaged and motivated through these programs. KPMG, a Fortune 500 company, developed a “Leaders Engaging Leaders” mentoring program where top managers are paired with members of the board of directors, national managing partners, and members

of the management committee in order to expand growth and learning and promote leadership goals (Rouen, 2012).

Having mentoring relationships demonstrates to the employees within the organization that they want to invest in them and shows those outside of the organization that management values its employees, a process that which helps organizations build strong cultures (Wanberg, Welsh, & Hezlett, 2003). This can relay back to the recruitment and onboarding process; mentoring programs may attract motivated candidates and once hired, they can enable new employees to become integrated in the organization more quickly. Leadership skills are developed in protégés and growth into leadership positions is encouraged. Affective organizational commitment has also been linked to mentoring relationships, such that career, psychosocial, and role-modeling mentor functions were significantly related to affective organizational commitment (Scandura, 1997). Younger employees who are able to participate in mentoring programs sense that there are more career development and advancement opportunities, thus enhancing their commitment to the organization. Subjective career outcomes are also increased in those receiving mentoring; mentees have been shown to have increased job satisfaction and a more favorable perception of the organization after participating in a mentoring program (Allen et al., 2004; Eby et al., 2008). These types of outcomes from mentoring are factors that organizations should take into consideration to increase positive behavioral and attitudinal organizational outcomes.

Research has demonstrated that people who have had a (successful) mentor or coach experience in the past are more likely to take on a similar role in the future (Bower,

2007). Formal mentoring programs will enable high performers to thrive, and top talent employees are more likely to stay with or come back to an organization that enables them to grow professionally and personally and feel supported. Individuals within an organization who have reported having a positive relationship with a mentor show enhanced confidence in their skills, thus increasing their commitment to the organization (Eby et al., 2013). Thus, mentoring decreases turnover by increasing organizational commitment. When organizations begin to plan for bridge employment and methods of passing down knowledge and experiences, a mentoring program may be an attractive option, due to its cyclical nature. Mentoring relationships have also been shown to increase organizational commitment and improve job satisfaction (Eby, Durley, Evans, & Ragins, 2006). In the short term, it has also been shown to improve job performance (Eby et al., 2006).

Other benefits have also been explored by researchers. A study by Farnese and colleagues (2016) assessed the moderating role of formal mentoring on the relationship between organizational socialization and 1) commitment and 2) turnover intentions. Over 100 correctional police officers were surveyed. This study was important in understanding and advancing the literature on the benefits of mentoring programs, as research on formal programs is not as plentiful as informal, and military mentoring research is scarce. It was found that formal mentoring programs impacted turnover intentions, such that those who reported having a positive mentoring experience had much fewer intentions to leave the organization than those who had not participated in a mentoring program.

Organizations may see many benefits emerge from mentoring programs and relationships within the workplace that are beneficial for the mentor, mentee, and company. Offering mentoring opportunities to retired individuals as bridge work would greatly impact the community and organization. Retired workers have skills and knowledge to offer that may be difficult or costly to train, and in turn mentoring in retirement satisfies generative, social, and volunteering needs and desires of retirees.

Motivations to Mentor

There are numerous motivations for older adults to participate in mentoring, including both organizational and individual incentives and personal characteristics (Aryee, Chay, & Chew, 1996). There is more variance in motivation to mentor with individual incentives. Altruism has been shown to be highly related to the decision to become a mentor (Aryee et al., 1996). Personality factors have not been deemed an influential component to mentoring (Bozionelos, 2004); the choice is determined by more malleable factors, such as attitudinal, social, and instrumental. Attitudinal components include reactions towards being willing to mentor. Organizational commitment is a great influence of engaging in extra behaviors that would help in reaching organizational goals, such as mentoring (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Mowday et al., 1982). A social factor is how mentoring could develop and expand social relationships (Van Emmerik, H., Baugh, S. G., & Euwema, M. C., 2005). Mentoring would provide individuals the opportunity to enhance their network. Finally, an instrumental factor is a utilitarian function (Van Emmierk et al., 2005), and if mentoring is likely to advance a person's career, they will be more likely to partake in that role (Mullen & Noe, 1999).

Women and men have similar desires to mentor others (Ragins, 1989; Ragins & Cotton, 1993). One's level in the organization may also impact motivations to mentor; there has been shown to be more variability among lower and mid-level employees and managers (Ragins & Cotton, 1993), while no differences between willingness to mentor and being motivated to mentor between executive level professionals (Ragins & Scandura, 1994). This is due to executives generally having a more uniformly high interest in mentoring and sense of purpose in the organization than lower-level employees (Ragins & Scandura, 1994).

As stated earlier in this paper, previous mentoring experience is an indicator and predominant motivation to mentor. This supports the model of behavioral consistency, that "past behavior is the best predictor of future behavior" (Wernimont & Campbell, 1968), along with the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) suggesting that having received and benefited from mentoring in the past will motivate an individual to become a mentor to others (Allen, Poteet, & Burroughs, 1997). Individuals with more mentoring experiences provide more career mentoring than those with fewer experiences (Allen & Eby, 2004).

One of the biggest drives to become a mentor is the idea of fulfilling a social responsibility (Wilson et al., 2013). Generativity is the central driver in the decision of older individuals to mentor, along with productivity, engagement, and the opportunity to be creative (Schoklitsche & Baumann, 2012). Older generations are eager to fulfil their generative needs; however, it is just as important that mentoring is a need for the organization or team (Ranzihn & Grbich, 2011). In the current study, we treat mentoring

as determined by an individual factor, generativity, and focus on additional work and organizational factors, work involvement and organizational commitment, as determinants of the choice to mentor.

As previously mentioned, there are various factors that retired adults take into consideration prior to determining whether they are interested in engaging in bridge employment. Similar factors are influential in the decision to mentor for an organization, such as perceived workload, perceived value of mentoring, perceived consequences of mentoring, and generativity. Individuals who perceive mentoring to be highly impactful are generally more motivated to mentor (Aryee et al., 1996). Individuals who are higher in affective commitment towards the organization are more motivated to serve as mentors (Van Emmerik et al., 2005).

Older adults choose to engage in mentoring, rather than other bridge employment options, due to the satisfying of most incentives and motivations that occur near retirement. Other popular determinates of interest in continuing work are stop working in shifts or extra hours, taking additional holidays, having more flexible working hours, working fewer hours a week, improvement of working conditions, and training or coaching colleagues (Buyens et al., 2008). Mentoring could accommodate many of those preferences and serves generativity needs. Research has indicated that willingness to mentor is negatively related to a time-consuming program or an opportunity for an individual's reputation to be damaged, but positively related to benefits, such as recognition and ego-enhancement (Ragins & Scandura, 1999). Thus, design of effective and appealing programs needs to take these characteristics into account.

Mentoring in the Same or Different Organization

The decision to mentor and mentoring programs have been predominantly assessed in the context of developing a mentoring relationship within the current workplace. Typically, a more senior employee will mentor a newer employee, in order to encourage development and speed up the learning curve. Those who are interested in mentoring and work (or formally worked) at an organization that has a mentoring program can conveniently be assigned a mentoring relationship. Research suggests that those who are highly satisfied with their jobs and have positive attitudes toward the organization will pursue extracurricular endeavors within the firm (Allen, 2003; Ragins & Cotton, 1993). Having participated in a mentoring relationship in the past has been shown to be positively related to the decision to mentor during a later stage in life, and the same has been shown for past and future mentoring relationships within organizations (Allen, 2003; Ragins & Scandura, 1999). Past researchers have also suggested mentoring others within an organization to be a form of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) (Allen, 2003), and the dispositional factors related to OCB would also be a motivating component to the decision to mentor.

Choosing to mentor in an organization different from where an individual previously worked is an option that some feel best suits their needs. This is often seen in mentoring programs aimed at helping children and teenagers and separate from the mentor's affiliation or attitudes towards their job and/or organization. An organization in Tennessee employs retired individuals of various professions, including police officers, lawyers, and teachers, who work as mentors for teenagers of low socioeconomic status or

underprivileged groups. These mentors report choosing this route of mentoring because of the opportunity to help others in need, give back to the community, and inspire younger generations to pursue their passions (Taylor, 2016). Other reasons individuals may choose to mentor in a different firm are relocation, change in organization status (i.e., complete change of management, company dissolved), or dissatisfaction with organization. Some individuals may be motivated to mentor in their former (or current) organization, but a lack of mentoring opportunities prevent them from doing so.

Mentoring and Generativity

Mentoring and generativity are often linked theoretically, as mentoring may be deemed a form of generativity, but empirical research on the two together is scarce (McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992). Many bridge employment studies that assess generative needs of retirees and older workers suggest that organizations find ways to meet the needs of generative adults, specifically developing positions that allow them to train and mentor others (Dendinger et al., 2005). Highly generative individuals are drawn to mentoring due to the desire to give back, rather than any incentives the organizations may offer, as generativity has been shown to be an individual factor strongly related to mentoring. However, it seems likely that generative individuals are more likely to return to a positive work environment as a means to meet that need. This suggests that the effects of generativity may be moderated by organizational/work-oriented conditions.

Research suggests that mentoring may have long lasting effects on protégés. Generative women have been shown to have had influential mentors in early adulthood.

This was supported through a longitudinal study, where the recognition of the influence of a mentor served as an antecedent to generative motivations in midlife. This demonstrates the importance of intergenerational links for understanding generativity (Peterson & Stewart, 1996). Westermeyer (2004) also found that being effectively mentored in one's earlier career was an antecedent to becoming generative in one's later career.

The measurement of generativity has evolved over time. Hastings and colleagues (2015) recently assessed generativity in college aged students and the impact of mentoring. The Loyola Generativity Scale was used to examine levels of generativity and split into five subscales: passing on knowledge to the next generation, making significant contributions for the betterment of one's community, doing things that will have an enduring legacy, being creative and productive, caring for and taking responsibility for other people (McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992). The authors sampled college students who were currently mentoring others and predicted mentoring relationships would positively influence generativity (Hastings, Creswell, Griessen, Dlugosh, & Hoover, 2015). It was discovered that student leaders who mentored had higher levels of generativity than general college students (Hastings et al., 2015). Student leaders who mentored also had higher levels of generativity than student leaders who did not mentor in regards to generative regard (Hastings et al., 2015). College students who had an internship and experienced immense professional involvement expressed a great desire to be generative (Singer et al., 2002). Mentors also expressed that mentoring catalyzed their interest in leaving a "legacy of generative leadership for generations to come" (Hastings

et al., 2015). Ultimately, having numerous positive mentoring experiences may be a standard for highly generative individuals and be motivation for them to give back as older adults. Thus, generativity may have a continued generational impact.

Whether individuals choose to participate in bridge employment will depend heavily on their affective attachment to their job (Kim & Feldman, 2000), thus demonstrating the influence of organizational and job commitment. In the next segments, we explore predictors of interest in bridge employment and of mentoring in particular, including generativity, organizational commitment, and work involvement.

Generativity

A construct that is logically related to mentoring and the return to work among retirees, particularly in order to pass along knowledge, is generativity. This construct has a long history in psychology. Erik Erikson describes a model in which there are eight stages people pass through throughout their lifespan. From the 40s to the point of typical retirement age, he believed that individuals “gave back” as a way to find meaning and purpose in life (Erikson, 1963), as generativity is conceptualized as “the concern in establishing and guiding the next generation” (Erikson, 1963). Although the original theory has changed in form, the idea that individuals in late career may feel a need to leave a legacy in terms of their career knowledge has remained. In fact, empirically, generativity has been identified as the most significant predictor of social responsibility (Rossi, 2001), showing that highly generative people are more likely to contribute resources (i.e., time and money) to their community, workplace, and family.

Generativity: Meaning and measurement

Generativity, an advanced developmental stage, is this “concern in establishing and guiding the next generation” (Erikson, 1950; Westermeyer, 2004). While Erikson described this seventh stage in development as the “conflict between generativity and stagnation” (Erikson, 1980), newer operationalizations of generativity include seven different features, including generative concern, generative motivation, and generative action (McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992). While Erikson suggests that generativity is most prominent in middle age (Erikson, 1980), later research suggests it may surface as an important need at older ages as well. In this stage, mid or late career individuals have a strong desire to leave a lasting impact and feel needed by younger generations. Logically we would expect this to play a role when work is engaging and intellectually stimulating.

Generative adults play a key role in enhancing the well-being of future generations. Not only can generativity help other generations, but it also enhances one’s aging success, as elderly workers expressed that generativity was a core component to their perception of aging successfully (Fisher, 1995). Aligned with the original definition of the construct, generativity provides a sense of purpose, a direction, and a sense of leaving a legacy for future generations. In the context of work, we would expect that it might involve mentoring individuals in order to transfer knowledge about the job and the occupational context.

Clearly there is a motivational aspect to generativity. Related to this point, McAdams and de St. Aubin (1992) have explored generativity as a multidimensional construct, including social and personality components. Within this theory, it is assumed

that some individuals may have a motivation to be generative (McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992). In this stage, people are likely to take on the responsibility of guiding or mentoring the upcoming generation (Westermeyer, 2004) and actively assuming the role of mentor, coach, and helping the next generation and community (Vaillant, 1993). Societal generativity is another term for generative adults caring for young adults, while serving as a mentor or leader and foster growth in subsequent generations (Snarey, 1993). This approach also treats generativity as an individual difference variable, which is present in some individuals but not all.

The relationship between several individual and contextual factors and generativity have been explored in past research as a means to clarify the construct. Work and non-work related factors have been shown to significantly predict generativity at mid and late career which include but are not limited to positive peer group relationships, a warm family environment, “absence of troubled parental discipline”, and mentor relationships (Westermeyer, 2004). Generativity is also more likely to occur when an individual has mastered earlier developmental stages, such as industry and career consolidation (Westermeyer, 2004), than those who have not. People who have higher levels of education and/or are a part of a higher socioeconomic status are more likely to be generative than those less educated or of a low socioeconomic status (Tang, 2008). Generativity has also been linked to various personality components, such as high openness to experience, agreeableness, and extraversion, and low neuroticism (de St. Aubin & McAdams, 1995). Other more specific personality characteristics related to

generativity are confidence, enthusiasm, high level of trust of others, and altruism (Cox, Wilt, Olson, & McAdams, 2010).

Assessment of this construct has evolved along with its definition. A commonly used method of assessing motivations is the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT). A version of the TAT, developed by Peterson and Stewart (1996), was specifically designed to measure generativity motivation. Two relevant themes of this measure were caring for others and productivity. Subsections under caring for others were broad societal concerns, concern for others, and teaching or advising others (Peterson & Stewart, 1996). Erikson's opposition of generativity is stagnation (a subsection of productivity), which is why productivity is an essential assessment, as it is conceptualized as the absence of generativity. Personal productivity is another subsection of that theme and describes one's desire to create a lasting idea or product (Peterson & Stewart, 1996). The third theme of their measure was parental generativity, which emphasized concerns with children. This conceptualization of generativity helped define the targets of generative needs. While this methodology may lend qualitative data that is helpful in understanding the nature of generative needs, a more structured and standardized measure that is particularly relevant to work behavior will be used in this study.

Another more structured and well-validated measure which will be used in this study, the Loyola Generativity Scale (LGS), assesses how important generative concern is, which is actively performing generative behavior (McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992). Generative concern may be motivated by internal or external sources- older adults may simply want to feel needed or may face societal pressures to become more generative

(McAdams, Hart, & Maruna, 1998). Generative concern may increase throughout a person's lifetime, along with the desire to provide for the next generation (McAdams et al., 1998). When scoring this scale, internal and external sources of motivation for generative concern are not separated. In order to assess the level of generative concern an individual has, the scores from each item are added together to create an overall score, with the average score being a 40 (out of 60).

This past work, suggesting that generativity has individual and context-specific components, aids identification of the conditions under which it impacts work behavior. In the next segment, we explore this in more depth.

Generativity at Work

The need for generativity is a major reason for older workers to return to work (Mor-Barak, 1995); humans encounter a stage in their life where they may have a need to pass on their knowledge to younger generations, particularly if they had a positive work experience (Erikson, 1975; Mor-Barak, 1995). Those invested more in their career may show generativity motivations more through productivity than someone who is not (Peterson & Stewart, 1996). More specifically in women, those who are highly invested in their careers express generativity through helping others through their work, occupational productivity, and self-mastery (Peterson & Stewart, 1996). Consistent with the idea presented earlier that generativity should occur more naturally in engaging work, research shows that women on a career-clock (high-paying or high-status job; opportunities for advancement) had higher generative motivations, while women not on a

career-clock (low-paying, low-status jobs/not paid) had lower motivations (Peterson & Stewart, 1996).

Additional research emphasizes the relationship between a positive work environment and generativity. The generative reason was the only variable to predict job satisfaction and attitudes towards retirement (Mor-Barak, 1995). Salary type jobs were more likely to fulfil generativity needs were perceived compared to self-employed jobs, which suggests that satisfying and motivating organizational climates and work may be key in incentivizing retirees to continue work (Kerr & Armstrong-Stassen, 2011).

Because generativity emphasizes how an older individual can pass along knowledge in order to help the community or younger generations, it is plausible that it has a strong connection to bridge employment, especially if the form of bridge employment guides others in their careers. One study assessed multiple influences of bridge employment, including generativity (Dendinger, Adams, & Jacobson, 2005). About 300 retirees from a university (blue and white collar workers) were sampled, and 108 who were currently employed through bridge employment were used in the analyses. Older adults often reported generative reasons for engaging in bridge employment, and it was significantly related to job satisfaction and occupational self-efficacy (Dendinger et al., 2005). These individuals thought they were positively contributing to their organization (Dendinger et al., 2005). The relationships between working to meet generativity needs in bridge employment and job satisfaction and retirement attitudes were also significant when income, age, and wellbeing were controlled for, strengthening the importance of working for generativity reasons (Dendinger et al., 2005). The findings

from that study suggest that there are many positive outcomes for those engaged in bridge employment that are able to meet their generativity needs of passing on their knowledge, skills, and abilities to younger employees (Dendinger et al., 2005), and older adults may have an avenue at their (former) job to behave generatively (Templer et al., 2010), specifically with mentoring.

Hypothesis 1: Individuals high in generativity will be more likely to show interest in mentoring as bridge employment than those low in generativity.

As noted in this review, generativity is most likely to have an impact on both affective reactions to work and retirement and the return to employment when the job and the organizational environment are appealing. When job involvement and organizational commitment are high, it is more likely that the individual will turn their need to “give back” to work-centered activities. In the next segments, we explore the constructs of job involvement and organizational commitment and their interaction with generativity in determining whether one continues work.

Job-Related Predictors of Interest

Retirement and bridge employment researchers often measure individual, personal characteristics when predicting post-retirement intentions. There is a lack of research in this area of work-related attitudes of bridge employees (Forteza & Prieto, 1994). These job-related factors may be as important and useful as personality variables when determining whether an individual will come back to work (Gobeski & Beehr, 2009; Lo & Chan, 2014) and have not been explored deeply. There is some evidence that

bridge employees and non-retired employees have differences in the reasons they work (Loi & Shultz, 2002; Mor-Barak, 1995). Affective commitment, relationships with coworkers, and job satisfaction are some organizational factors that impact attitudes towards work and the return to work (Lo & Chan, 2014). The present study fills the gap in the literature by examining the work-related factors organizational commitment and job involvement as they relate to interest in bridge employment and mentoring younger employees within the organization.

Organizational commitment

Practitioners have been intrigued by the research on organizational and job commitment, due to its relation to performance and turnover. Meyer and Allen (1997) developed the commonly used three-component model of commitment. The three themes that emerge from this model are affective, normative, and continuance commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997), which are the emotional attachment to a company, obligation to stay, and the perceived cost of leaving (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Organizational commitment measures the strength of an individual's involvement in, identification with, and loyalty to a particular organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer et al., 1993). All commitment themes have a unique impact on organizational behaviors and decisions. The focus of this study will be specifically on affective commitment and its' influence over bridge employment interest. The emotional attachment to an organization develops from the perception that the company treats its employees fairly, values individuals' contributions, and supports its employees (Luchak, Pohler, & Gellatly, 2008). Affective commitment has been shown to be the strongest predictor (of the various types of

commitment) of organizationally desired outcomes (Allen et al., 2003; Meyer et al., 2002). Thus, it is logically related to the decision to return to work, particularly among higher income white collar retirees who have more discretion about the decision to work.

Affective commitment has been shown to lead to greater attendance, job performance, and organizational citizenship behaviors (Meyer et al., 2002), while also being positively related to taking on additional roles (Meyer & Allen, 1991). It is also important in determining an employee's dedication and loyalty (Allen & Meyer, 1990). The identification with the organization increases the likelihood of participating in organization activities (Rhoads & Eisenberger, 2001). High levels of affective commitment have also been linked to better health and wellbeing in older workers (Meyer et al., 2002), which may open the door for further employment opportunities post-retirement.

Organizational commitment has been widely studied and its impact on organizational output has been shown to be very positive (Cohen, 2003; Meyer & Allen, 1997). One study conducted by Keni, Rajendran, Huey, and Ping (2013) examined whether organizational commitment increases, decreases, or remains the same in older workers approaching retirement. Employees with high levels of affective commitment were more likely to continue working past the retirement age, despite financially appealing incentives to do so. Similarly, retirees who report having high affective organizational commitment have less desire to fully retire (Adams & Beehr, 1998; Taylor & MacFarlane Shore, 1995).

This contradicts the theory that older workers will choose to retire solely based on their idea of when it is financially most beneficial (Pesando, Gunderson, & Shum, 1992) and demonstrates that economics, while important, may not be the only determinant of retirement decisions. Older workers who postpone retirement due to affective commitment value the intrinsic rewards of work. The introduction of bridge employment opportunities could be an attractive option to highly committed older workers who are of retirement age but still enjoy the non-financial perks of their former job.

Opportunities to grow professional and personally have been shown to increase organizational commitment (Lapointe & Vandenberghe, 2016). This is because the organization is viewed to be supporting their career and development. Mentoring is development-oriented and has been shown to be linked to commitment and turnover intentions (Lapoint & Vandenberghe, 2016). This provides additional evidence of the linkage between commitment and mentoring activities.

While organizational commitment allows us to examine affective ties between a retiree and their former firm, involvement in the work itself is an additional influence on the attraction of returning to work. In the next segment, we explore the nature of this construct and its potential value as a predictor of interest in mentoring.

Hypothesis 2: Organization type will moderate the relationship between affective commitment and willingness to mentor, such that individuals high in affective commitment will be more willing to mentor in the same organization as opposed to a different organization.

Hypothesis 3: Generativity will moderate the relationship between affective commitment and willingness to mentor, such that individuals high in generativity and affective commitment will be more likely to be willing to mentor.

Job involvement

Job involvement is a work attitude that remains stable over time (Dalal, Brummel, Wee, & Thomas, 2008) and implies that workers are in a generally complete state of engagement of the “core aspects of the self in the job” (Sulander, Sinervo, Elovainio, Heponiemi, Helkama, & Aalto, 2016). It has also been operationalized as the extent to which an employee participated in his/her job and whether the needs of prestige, self-regard, autonomy, and self-respect are met (Allport, 1943). This demonstrates the importance an individual places on their specific job and may be associated with intrinsic rewards (Kanungo, 1982). For the purposes of this study, job involvement will be formally conceptualized as “the degree to which a person perceives his total work situation to be an important part of his life and to be central to him and his identity because of the opportunity it affords him to satisfy his important needs” (Lawler & Hall, 1970). Individuals who are highly involved in their job views their work experiences as rewarding and have a strong desire to be at work and put in maximum effort. (Lawler & Hall, 1970), especially when supporting and working towards achieving an organizational goal (Brown, 1996). Those highly involved in their work have also been shown to exert extra time into meaningful work, including mentoring others (Ruscio, Whitney, & Amabile, 1998), as mentoring requires individuals to go above and beyond job requirements.

Job involvement as a whole incorporates many components that influence how invested an employee may be in their work. When employees view their employment as a central life interest, rather than just a place to earn money, job involvement will be higher. Considering work as a central aspect of life enables workers to feel happier and be more punctual (Vargheese & Praveen, 2014). Active participation in the job is also an essential part of job involvement, as workers high on this measure are more willing to be fully immersed in their job without hindrance, meaning physically and mentally exerting themselves towards their work. Job performance being a central part of self-esteem, as well as being compatible with one's self-concept will also drastically impact job involvement. Those high in job involvement maintain a competitive spirit with coworkers so that each is encouraged to perform at their highest abilities (Vargheese & Praveen, 2014).

There are additional conditions which may increase job involvement in employees (Bass, 1965), which include achievement, freedom to set own work pace, recognition, feeling of making an important contribution to the organization, opportunities to make job decisions, and self-determination. Thus, enriched work environments are more likely to be associated with stronger feelings of identification with work.

When defining job involvement, it is important to clarify the nature of the construct and to choose measures consistent with that definition. Methodological issues may also have compromised researchers' ability to explore the relationship between involvement and work-oriented outcomes of interest. A commonly used scale to measure job involvement developed by Lodahl and Kejner (1965) has been criticized by many

researchers who claim that it does not accurately measure the construct. This scale incorporates multiple dimensions and has been referred to by other researchers as conceptually ambiguous (Kanungo, 1982; Morrow, 1983; Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977). In the past, researchers had used a condensed version of this scale due to its lack of clarity regarding the meaning of various items (Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977). Overall, the Lodahl and Kejner scale did not clearly operationalize the construct and researchers have determined the “conceptual and operational definitions of job involvement” to be poor (Morrow, 1983). Kanungo (1982) developed a new scale, the Job Involvement Scale, which more accurately measures job involvement per its general conceptualization of being one’s “psychological identification with one’s work as a central part of a person’s identity” (Lawler & Hall, 1970; Kanungo, 1982). The Kanungo (1982) scale is now thought to be the most precise and clear measure of the construct. This definition of the construct of work involvement is consistent with its use in the current study.

When examining job involvement, it is also important to be aware of the various components that are linked to that concept. The importance of job involvement to an individual is related to job performance, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and organizational commitment (Khan, Jam, Akbar, Khan, & Hijazi 2010). Research has indicated that increased levels of job involvement lead to personal motivation, goal-directed behavior, and work satisfaction (Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Schultz & Schultz, 1994).

An individual's attitudes towards work have been shown to predict work intentions after retirement (Gobeski & Beehr, 2009). Job satisfaction, a positive attitude towards work, has been shown to be negatively associated with the decision to retire and positively related to pursuing a bridge job (Gobeski & Beehr, 2009; Topa, Moriano, Depolo, Alcover, & Morales, 2009; Wang et al., 2008). Prior to 2003, out of 26 studies examining the relationship between job involvement and job satisfaction, 21 showed significant relationships (Wyk, Boshoff, & Cilliers, 2003). A study conducted by Wyk and colleagues (2003) showed significant positive relations between job involvement and general job satisfaction ($r=0.24$), internal job satisfaction ($r=0.23$), and job satisfaction total ($r=0.23$). This suggests that increasing job involvement is correlated with increases in job satisfaction. It may be the case that in white collar occupations, HR specialists facing staffing shortages would be well advised to design incentives centered around enriching and satisfying work options for retirees.

While research in this area is limited, existing studies suggest that job involvement may play a significant role in guiding retirees' decisions to return to work or to continue work. A study by Birk Buyens and colleagues utilized four items based on the Kanungo job involvement scale in order to assess how job involvement impacts older workers' decisions to continue working past retirement age. Participants indicated that their level of job involvement would significantly influence their preferred future career post-retirement, such that job involvement was positively related to career expanding preferences. Older workers who wanted to cease working post-retirement and diminish the role of work in their lives were not very involved in their jobs.

Hypothesis 4: Organization type will moderate the relationship between job involvement and willingness to mentor, such that individuals high in job involvement will be more willing to mentor in the same organization as opposed to a different organization.

Hypothesis 5: Generativity will moderate the relationship between job involvement and willingness to mentor, such that individuals high in generativity and job involvement will be more willing to mentor than those low in generativity and job involvement.

In summary, affective attachment to the organization and to work coupled with the need to give back to younger employees may predict interest in bridge employment, particularly when the option offered meets or is compatible with these needs. Individuals who express higher levels of affective commitment and job involvement are more likely to indicate a high interest in employment after retirement (Kalokerinos, van Hippel, & Henry, 2015).

Based on the research reviewed, the present research provides an examination of the relationship between the predictors of generativity, affective organizational commitment and job involvement on the dependent variable of interest in mentoring (in the same or different organization) as a bridge job during retirement. The impact of generativity on bridge employment decisions is also assessed. Retired participants will complete a survey assessing affective commitment and job involvement in their previous

job, level of generativity, interest in bridge employment, and willingness to mentor in their previous firm or in another firm.

CHAPTER TWO

SUMMARY OF HYPOTHESES

The present study sought to better understand the relationship affective commitment and job involvement have with the willingness to mentor, and how preferred organization type (to mentor) and generativity moderate that relationship. The following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 1: Individuals high in generativity will be more likely to show interest in mentoring as bridge employment than those low in generativity.

Hypothesis 2: Organization type will moderate the relationship between affective commitment and willingness to mentor, such that individuals high in affective commitment will be more willing to mentor in the same organization as opposed to a different organization.

Hypothesis 3: Generativity will moderate the relationship between affective commitment and willingness to mentor, such that individuals high in generativity and affective commitment will be more willing to mentor than those low in generativity and job involvement.

Hypothesis 4: Organization type will moderate the relationship between job involvement and willingness to mentor, such that individuals high in job involvement will be more willing to mentor in the same organization as opposed to a different organization.

Hypothesis 5: Generativity will moderate the relationship between job involvement and willingness to mentor, such that individuals high in generativity and job involvement will be more willing to mentor than those low in generativity and job involvement.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Participants and Procedure

220 retirees from Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) were recruited to participate in the study. A power analysis was conducted to determine an appropriate sample size, based off former relationships between organizational commitment and mentoring and job involvement and mentoring; correlation estimates ranged from .29 to .45 (Allen et al., 1997; Beehr & Bennett, 2014; McAdams et al., 1998; Peterson & Stewart, 1996; Rau & Adams, 2005; Wang et al., 2008), alpha levels were set to .05, and the desired level of power was .80. Based on this power analysis, statistical power would not be jeopardized with a sample over 68.

To be eligible for this study, participants had to identify as retired, identify as healthy enough to return to work, and have formally had a white-collar job, which is universally defined as a person who performs professional, managerial, or administrative work typically in an office, cubicle, or other administrative setting. White collar professions were the focus of this study due to the increased opportunities for mentoring and value organizations in those fields place on mentoring (Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Underhill, 2005). The survey was administered online to the MTurk participant pool. Participants received \$1.50 as compensation for their participation. The retirees were asked to complete an online, confidential survey.

Of the 220 participants, 53.6% were male and 43.6% were female, and 64.1% were Caucasian, 8.6% African American, 6.8% Hispanic/Latino, 13.6% Asian, and 1.4%

Native American. Over half of the participants were between the ages 60 and 69 (53%). 19% of participants were under the age of 50, 17% were between ages 50-59, and 11% were between the ages 70 and 79. The majority of participants have a higher education, as 46.8% held a Bachelor's degree, 17.3% had a Master's degree, and 6.8% had a Doctoral or Professional degree.

The health of participants was also examined. 3.2% of participants rated their health as moderately below average, 8.2% rated it slightly below average, 25.5% rated it as average, 14.1% rated it slightly above average, 32.3% of participants rated their health as moderately above average, and 13.2% rated their health as far above average. The tenure each participant spent in their previous occupation was also assessed, and it was shown that 44.1% of participants worked in their prior occupation for over 21 years, 21.4% for 16-20 years, 11.8% for 10-15 years, and 19% for under 9 years. Additionally, the number of years each participant worked at their previous organization were examined and 26.8% worked at the previous organization for over 21 years, 18.2% for 16-20 years, 23.6% for 10-15 years, and 28.6 for 9 years or less. The total annual income before taxes of participants consisted of 12.7% \$19,000 or less, 20.9% had \$20,000-\$39,000, 19.1% at \$40,000 - \$59,000, 16.4% at \$60,000 - \$ 79,000, 13.6% at \$80,000 - \$99,000, 5.5% at \$100,000 - \$149,000, and 7.7% made \$150,000 or more. The most popular participant former occupations were Management careers at 23.6%, while Business and Financial Operations at 16.4%, Computer and Mathematical at 8.2%, Education, Training, and Library at 7.3%, and Architecture and Engineering at 5.5%. In a lengthy list of former jobs, most participants were Bank Managers, Engineers, Financial

Consultants, Lawyers, Programmers, Sales Managers, and Teachers. The majority of participants had been retired for 1-3 years (55.5%), while 18.2% had been retired from 4-5 years, and 15% for 6 – 10 years.

General Study Measures

The measures utilized to assess each variable in this study are described below, along with sample items from each respective scale. Other measures and items were included in the survey as exploratory variables that were not included in current study (e.g., bridge employment, mentoring preferences).

Biodata. Many items were included in this study to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the demographic variables, including gender, age, race, financial status, health, number of years retired, tenure in previous occupation, previous mentoring experience (as a mentor and/or mentee), and experience with bridge employment (see Appendix A). Financial need was used as a control variable to allow for testing of the effects on the dependent variable. Exploratory analyses were conducted on any significant predictors to clarify their effect on the dependent variables.

Affective Organizational Commitment. Six items measuring affective commitment from Meyer and Allen's (1997) organizational commitment scale was used in the present study. A 7-point Likert scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree was employed to assess commitment. This scale was found to be highly reliable with a Cronbach's alpha of .95. Sample items include, "I felt a strong sense of belonging to my

organization” and “I felt personally attached to my work organization” (see Appendix B). All items were averaged together to create an overall affective commitment score.

Job Involvement. Kanungo’s (1982) measure of job involvement was used with a 7-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7). Included were items such as, “I was very personally involved in my job” and “Most of my personal life goals were job-oriented” (refer to Appendix C). Items were averaged together to determine an overall job involvement score. This scale had a high reliability ($\alpha = .94$).

Generativity. The Loyola Generativity Scale (LGS) was used to measure participants’ level of generative concern (McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992). In the past, this scale has been associated with generativity in the workplace (McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992). A reliability of .84 for the full 20-item scale was reported by McAdams and de St. Aubin (1992). Seven items from the original scale were used in this study that were most reflective of the desire to pass on information (Clark & Arnold, 2008; Schaffer, M., 2013) and relevant to the study. This abbreviated scale has been shown to have a reliability of .89 in past studies (Clark & Arnold, 2008; Schaffer, M., 2013). A reliability analysis for this scale yielded high reliability ($\alpha = .92$) in the present study. Items for this measure include, “I try to pass along the knowledge I have gained through my experiences” and “I have important skills that I try to teach others” and were assessed on a 7-point Likert scale of (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree. The 7 items on this scale were averaged together to compose an overall generativity score for each participant.

Bridge Employment. One item was utilized to assess whether participants are currently engaged in bridge employment or fully retired. Two items asked whether participants have interest in and intend to engage in bridge employment and specify if this interest is for pay or volunteer and at their former place of employment or a different organization (refer to Appendix E). Interest in returning to work at the former organization and intention to return to work at the former organization were highly correlated, $r=.89$, and had a reliability of .94. Interest in returning to work at a different organization and intention to return to work at a different organization were also highly correlated, $r=.84$, with a reliability of .91. The total bridge employment scale had a reliability of .82.

Willingness to Mentor. Willingness to mentor was measured using three items. A mentor is described as an individual influential in the work environment (in a part-time role) who has advanced experience and knowledge and can help prepare junior organization members for further organizational responsibilities (Kram & Hall, 1996). One item was from the original Ragins and Cotton (1993) two-item willingness to mentor scale, comprised of the statement, “I would like to be a mentor.” Two additional items added by Ragins and Scandura (1994) were also included: “I intend to mentor” and “I would be comfortable assuming a mentoring role.” A seven-point Likert scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree and (7) strongly agree was used to assess participants’ responses. Participants are also asked to specify whether their interest in mentoring is at the former organization of employment or a different organization (Appendix F). An average willingness to mentor score was computed from all items for each participant.

The willingness to mentor in the former organization and willingness to mentor in a different organization variables were developed from the separate items specifying organization. The scale assessing the total willingness to mentor ($\alpha = .89$) and willingness to mentor at their former organization ($\alpha = .92$) had slightly higher reliabilities than those willing to at a different organization ($\alpha = .89$).

Additionally, participants were asked how often they would be willing to mentor, the type of mentoring they would prefer to engage in, and the importance of pay to their decision to mentor. The how often scale ranged from weekly to annually, also allowing the option of one time or as needed by the organization. Participants also indicated along with this question how important pay is to them for each of their preferred mentoring frequencies. Mentoring type consisted of typical mentoring options available in organizations, along with the content of support they would desire to provide (e.g. emotional support, career support).

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

Data Cleaning and Preparation

Data preparation and cleaning was conducted using SPSS 23.0 and Excel 2013, and all statistical analyses were conducted using SPSS 23.0. Prior to conducting analyses, participants indicating they were not retired, white collar, or healthy enough to complete the survey were eliminated from the sample. This brought the sample down from 231 to 220. The data were also screened for outliers according to each individual measure. Descriptive statistics allowed the researchers to examine the distribution and variability of each predictor and the dependent variable. While past research provides evidence substantiating the validity and reliability of the scales, Cronbach's alpha was calculated as a preliminary check on the reliability of the scales in the current sample. Prior to testing the hypotheses, the independent variable scale scores for each respondent were mean-centered, which has been shown to reduce multicollinearity (Cronbach, 1987). Multicollinearity results in an unreliable regression coefficient and makes it difficult to interpret. Mean-centering allows for easier interpretation of the results. This is an essential step to include in regression analyses involving an interaction. The control variable, financial need, was entered into SPSS as the first step for all formal hypothesis analyses. Also, since there were some very young respondents, all hypotheses were tested once with the entire sample and again with only participants over the age of 59, which is most reflective of a typical retirement sample.

Descriptive and Correlational Statistics

Means, standard deviations, bivariate correlations, and Cronbach Alphas for each measure used in the present study are presented in Table 1. Based off a 7-point scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree), retirees reported a slightly above average willingness to mentor ($M=4.36$, $SD=1.51$). They also reported above average levels of generativity ($M=5.48$, $SD=1.07$), affective commitment ($M=5.30$, $SD=1.34$), job involvement ($M=4.79$, $SD=1.30$). Participants indicated on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) having moderately low financial need ($M=3.88$, $SD=1.82$) and moderately high financial comfort ($M=5.13$, $SD=1.45$).

Nearly half (42.5%) of participants have had no prior mentoring experience, 39% have either mentored or been a mentee at their former organization prior to retirement, and 13.6% have either mentored or been a mentee at a different organization prior to retirement. 52% of participants reported that they would prefer to mentor in a former organization, while 46% would prefer to mentor in a different organization. An independent samples t-test analysis demonstrated that the preference for mentoring (1=strongly agree, 7=strongly disagree) in the former organization ($M=4.78$, $SD=1.37$) was significantly higher than the preference for mentoring in a different organization ($M=3.89$, $SD=1.52$) among retirees, $t(214)=4.54$, $p<.001$.

Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 stated there would be a significant, positive relationship between generativity and willingness to mentor. Regression analysis results indicated that generativity significantly predicted willingness to mentor, $B=.57$, $SE_B=.18$, $\beta=.41$, $p<.001$, and explained a significant proportion of variance in willingness to mentor scores, $R^2=.18$, $F(1,215)=24.05$, $p<.001$. This hypothesis was also tested for participants age 60 and older. The regression analysis indicated a significant main effect on willingness to mentor, $B=.51$, $SE_B=.10$, $\beta=.39$, $p<.001$, and explained a significant proportion of variance in willingness to mentor scores, $R^2=.15$, $F(1,135)=11.84$, $p<.001$. This evidence shows support for Hypothesis 1 (see Table 4).

Hierarchical multiple regression-based analyses were used to test all hypotheses including an interaction (Hypothesis 2, 3, 4, and 5), beyond simple correlations. First, financial need was entered as a control variable for each hypothesized analysis. Hypothesis 2 and 3 predicted how organization type and generativity would moderate the relationship between affective organizational commitment and willingness to mentor, while Hypothesis 4 and 5 predicted how organization type and generativity moderate the relationship between job involvement and willingness to mentor. Organization type according to mentoring preference was coded as 1 for former organization and 2 for a different organization. This variable was also dummy coded for the moderation analyses, where former firm=1 and different firm=0.

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 stated that the interaction between affective commitment and organization type would predict willingness to mentor, such that individuals with high levels of affective commitment would be more interested in mentoring in the same organization as opposed to a different organization. The hierarchical linear regression analysis indicated there was not a significant interaction effect of affective commitment and organization type on the willingness to mentor. That is, organizational preference did not significantly impact the relationship between affective commitment and willingness to mentor, $B = -.06$, $SE_B = .05$, $\beta = -.09$, $p = .21$. The interaction was also tested for participants age 60 and older. There was no significant interaction on willingness to mentor, $B = -.28$, $SE_B = .18$, $\beta = -.16$, $p = .13$. These results do not support Hypothesis 2.

Though the interaction between organizational type and affective commitment did not significantly predict willingness to mentoring, a univariate analysis of variance was run to examine the main effects of affective commitment and organization type on willingness to mentor. The main effect of affective commitment was found to significantly positively relate to willingness to mentor, $F(1,216) = 46.94$, $p < .001$. There was no significant main effect for organization type on willingness to mentor, $F(1,216) = 2.52$, $p = .11$. Main effects were also examined with participants age 60 and over. Affective commitment had a significant main effect on willingness to mentor, $F(1,136) = 31.19$, $p < .001$. The main effect of organization type on willingness to mentor was not significant, $F(1,136) = 3.86$, $p = .05$. Variable means related to this hypothesis may be found in Table 2.

Hypothesis 3

This hypothesis predicted that the interaction of affective commitment and generativity would be related to willingness to mentor, such that those with high levels of both variables would be more willing to mentor than those with lower levels. Results from the hierarchical linear regression analysis showed that although the main effects for affective commitment and generativity are significant, the interaction effect only accounted for only an additional .6% variance beyond affective commitment, $R^2 = .18$, and was not significant, $B = -.06$, $SE_b = .05$, $\beta = -.09$, $p = .21$.

This hypothesis was also examined in all respondents age 60 and older. In this analysis, there was a significant interaction between affective commitment and generativity, $B = -.12$, $SE_b = .05$, $\beta = -.21$, $p < .05$. The R^2 for the interaction was .26 and the interaction accounted for an additional 2.7% of variance. Simple slopes for the association between affective commitment and willingness to mentor were tested for high (+1 SD above the mean) and low (-1 SD below the mean) levels of generativity. Each simple slope showed a significant positive relationship between affective commitment and willingness to mentor. Affective commitment, however, was more strongly related to willingness to mentor when generativity was low, $B = .64$, $SE_b = .14$, $\beta = .57$, $p < .001$ than when it was high, $B = .38$, $SE_b = .15$, $\beta = .34$, $p < .01$. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 is not supported. These results may be found in Table 5 and are illustrated in Figure 6.

Hypothesis 4

This hypothesis stated the interaction between job involvement and organization would be significantly related to willingness to mentor, such that individuals with high levels of job involvement would be more interested in mentoring in the same organization as opposed to a different organization. When all variables were entered into the full model, with the control variable of financial need, results indicated there was not a significant interaction relationship between job involvement and organization type towards willingness to mentor, $B = -.04$, $SE_B = .14$, $\beta = -.03$, $p = .75$. The interaction was also tested for participants age 60 and older. There was no significant interaction on willingness to mentor, $B = .01$, $SE_B = .16$, $\beta = .00$, $p = .98$. This evidence shows no support for Hypothesis 4.

The main effects of job involvement and organization type were also examined. A univariate analysis of variance indicated a significant main effect of job involvement on willingness to mentor, $F(1,216) = 67.07$, $p < .001$. There was also a significant main effect of organization type on willingness to mentor, $F(1,216) = 6.68$, $p < .01$. Significant main effects were also detected for participants age 60 and older. Job involvement was significantly related to willingness to mentor, $F(1,136) = 40.19$, $p < .001$, as was organization type on willingness to mentor, $F(1,136) = 8.08$, $p < .01$. Variable means related to this hypothesis may be found in Table 2.

Hypothesis 5

The final hypothesis predicted that the interaction of job involvement and generativity would be predictive of willingness to mentor, such that individuals with high

levels of both job involvement and generativity would be more willing to mentor than those lower in job involvement and generativity. The hierarchical linear regression analysis revealed that the interaction between job involvement and generativity had an R^2 of .30 but did not significantly predict willingness to mentor, $B=-.08$, $SE_b=.05$, $\beta=-.10$, $p=.11$.

This hypothesis was further examined among participants who were age 60 and over. The hierarchical linear regression analysis revealed that the interaction between job involvement and generativity had an R^2 of .30 and significantly predicted willingness to mentor, $B=-.13$, $SE_b=.06$, $\beta=-.22$, $p<.05$. Simple slopes for the association between job involvement and willingness to mentor were tested for high (+1 SD above the mean) and low (-1 SD below the mean) levels of generativity. Each of the simple slopes showed a significant positive relationship between job involvement and willingness to mentor. However, job involvement was more strongly related to willingness to mentor in those with lower levels of generativity, $B=.62$, $SE_b=.12$, $\beta=.59$, $p<.001$, than those with high levels of generativity, $B=.35$, $SE_b=.10$, $\beta=.33$, $p<.01$. This shows no support for Hypothesis 5. Results may be found in Table 6 and a graphical representation is illustrated in Figure 7.

Exploratory Analyses

Exploratory analyses were conducted to further assess significant hypotheses and other variables of interest to gain additional insight into bridge employment and interest in mentoring. It is important to mention that the analyses were purely exploratory.

Finding significant results by chance is a definite risk. These analyses were conducted to further understand the participants and were conducted on participants age 60 and older. Each measure used in these analyses were based off a 7-point scale. Several demographic variables were also examined to see if they had any effect on willingness to mentor. An independent samples t-test showed that there is a significant difference, $t(134)=2.14$, $p<.05$, between males ($M=4.03$, $SD=1.64$) and females ($M=4.58$, $SD=1.30$) in regards to willingness to mentor, such that females were willing to mentor more than males. In addition, correlation analyses were run on education, income, ethnicity, and level of health. Ethnicity was found to be highly significantly correlated to willingness to mentor ($r=.24$, $p<.001$), along with level of education obtained ($r=.14$, $p<.05$). Previous experience with mentoring was also significantly correlated with willingness to mentor ($r=.26$, $p<.01$), and an independent samples t-test shows that there is a significant difference on willingness to mentor between those with mentoring experience ($M=4.73$, $SD=1.35$) and those with no mentoring experience ($M=3.88$, $SD=1.56$), such that those with prior mentoring experience were more willing to mentor than those without, $t(189)=3.96$, $p<.001$.

Age and former occupation were also examined as possible influences of willingness to mentor among retirees. Age was not significantly correlated to any of the independent or dependent variables included in this study. Results of these correlations and significant values may be found in Table 8. Former occupation was explored to check whether it moderated any relationship between independent variables and willingness to mentor. Regression analyses indicated that there was no significant

interaction among affective commitment and former occupation ($B=.02, p=.26$), job involvement ($B=.01, p=.41$), generativity ($B=.02, p=.42$), and organization type ($B=.08, p=.08$). Though former occupation did not moderate any relationships, an analysis of variance indicated there was a significant difference between former occupations and willingness to mentor, $F(19, 136)=1.74, p<.05$. LSD post-hoc analyses indicated several significant differences in means between occupation type, which may be found in Table 9.

Additional information regarding mentoring preferences among retirees was examined. In this study, participants expressed how frequently they would prefer to mentor and the importance of pay, the type of mentoring support they would prefer to provide, and the types of mentoring interactions they would like to engage in. These analyses were conducted with participants 60 years old or older. Each type of mentoring support (career development, emotional, tangible, and informational/appraisal) was significantly positively correlated ($p<.01$) to willingness to mentor, with correlations ranging from .44 to .55 respectively. Participants indicated higher preferences on a 1 (extremely uninterested) to 7 (extremely interested) scale to provide career development ($M=5.25, SD=1.56$) and informational/appraisal support ($M=5.45, SD=1.44$) than emotional ($M=4.62, SD=1.77$) and tangible ($M=4.17, SD=1.89$) support.

A willingness to mentor on a weekly basis was indicated by 36% of participants ($M=4.72, SD=1.21$), where importance of pay (1=extremely unimportant, 7=extremely important) for this frequency was one of the highest ($M=5.31, SD=1.18$). 16% would be willing to mentor twice a month ($M=4.57, SD=1.36$). Importance of pay was highest for

participants indicating that they would prefer to mentor as needed by the organization ($M=5.57$, $SD=1.33$), however participants choosing this option were not as willing to mentor ($M=3.59$, $SD=1.76$) as other options of frequency. A univariate analysis of variance indicated significant differences between preferred frequencies of willingness to mentor, $F(7,176)=4.98$, $p<.001$. Post-hoc analyses indicate that all frequency of mentoring preferences were significantly different than the preference of mentoring one time and most were significantly different than the preference for willingness to mentor as needed by the organization. These findings may be found in Table 7.

Participants indicated their mentoring interaction preferences on a 1 (extremely uninterested) to 7 (extremely interested) scale. Results indicated they were most interested in one-on-one mentoring interactions ($M=5.26$, $SD=1.43$), though delivering a presentation on a topic of their choice ($M=4.96$, $SD=1.74$) and participating in an open forum Q&A session ($M=4.90$, $SD=1.65$) were also appealing options. Participating in an open forum Q&A session had the highest significant positive correlation with willingness to mentor, $r=.63$ $p<.01$.

Finally, the concept of returning to work in general was explored to see if there were more meaningful relationships than specifically being willing to mentor. Interest in and intent to engage in bridge employment were assessed on a 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) scale. Descriptive statistics indicate that the interest ($M=4.45$, $SD=1.75$) and intentions ($M=4.38$, n $SD=1.70$) are higher in returning to work at a different organization than interest ($M=4.16$, $SD=1.86$) and intent ($M=3.87$, $SD=1.84$) to return to work at their former organization. Correlation analyses indicate significant correlations

between the independent variables of affective commitment and job involvement and interest and intent to return to work at their former organization or a different organization. Affective commitment is associated with interest in returning to work at a former organization, $r(136)=.44, p<.01$, and interest in returning to work at a different organization, $r(136)=.22, p<.05$. These correlations with affective commitment are significantly different, $Z=2.03, p<.05$.

This is also reflected in intent, such that affective commitment is correlated with intentions to return to work at a former organization, $r(136)=.41, p<.01$, and intentions to return to work at a different organization $r(136)=.17, p<.05$. These correlations with affective commitment are significantly different, $Z=2.15, p<.05$. Though correlations were larger between job involvement and interest ($r(136)=.46$) and intent ($r(136)=.45$) in returning to work at a former organization than interest ($r(136)=.30$) and intent ($r(136)=.34$) in a different organization, there were no significant differences. The interaction of affective commitment and generativity had significant negative correlations with interest in returning to work at a different organization ($r(136)=-.20, p<.05$) and intent to return to work at a different organization ($r(136)=-.21, p<.01$) but were not significantly different.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

Summary of Findings

In the present study, affective commitment and job involvement were examined as motivational influences of retirees' interest to return to work as a mentor. Previous research indicates that there is a relationship between organizational commitment and bridge employment (Keni et al., 2013; Taylor & MacFarlane Shore, 1995), which may also be reflected in interest in mentoring post-retirement. Results of the study extend the existing literature on bridge employment and mentoring by demonstrating that affective commitment and job involvement were both positively related to the willingness to mentor post-retirement. Generativity was also shown to be very significantly positively related to willingness to mentor. Though the organizational variables were related to willingness to mentor, there was no significant effect of organization preference (same or different), as the researchers predicted. By asking participants to reflect on previous organizational commitment and job involvement, we may have tapped into occupational attachment rather than a true affective link to the firm in which they previously worked.

Though the interactions between commitment and generativity and job involvement and generativity were found insignificant among the entire sample, these interaction relationships were found significant among participants over the age of 60. This is especially pertinent to organizations, as the average retirement age is 62. These findings support previous research that has demonstrated that generativity, commitment, and job involvement are linked to mentoring. Though the interactions between affective

commitment and generativity and job involvement and generativity were significant for both high and low levels of generativity, the results indicated a greater willingness to mentor among individuals with levels of generativity below the mean. A possible explanation of this is that mentoring in a former organization may be perceived as a job and not necessarily meet the desire of an individual who wants to engage in generative behaviors. It may also be the case that the interest in pay exceeds the generative motivation to mentor. Another explanation may be that attitudes retirees hold towards millennials are deterring them from their willingness to mentor (Sandfort & Haworth, 2002; Oblinger, 2003). Retirees may be highly generative and committed to their job or were involved in their job, however if their perception of millennials is negative (i.e., Millennials are narcissistic, entitled, and lazy) (Much, Wagener, Breitreutz, Hellenbrand, 2014), they may be less willing to return to work to mentor. It is, however, important to mention that although individuals with lower levels of generativity reported a greater willingness to mentor, generativity scores as a whole were still moderately positive.

Limitations

The proposed study is not without limitations. First, the use of MTurk to collect data serves as a limitation for several reasons; the most predominant of which is the sample. Because participants are recruited online, it is possible that not every participant was retired or a formally white collar worker. For example, there were some participants who were in their 20's, and it is unlikely that those participants were retired. Pay may also serve as a limitation; though higher pay has been shown to produce better quality results, the higher pay of my study may have encouraged participants to be deceptive in

their responses when electing into the study (Paolacci, G., Chandler, J., & Ipeirotis, P. G., 2010). Finally, the attention that participants dedicate to accurately completing the survey is unclear when collecting data through this method.

Another limitation is that we were only able to assess intentions or desire to return to work as a mentor, which may be different than returning to work as a mentor. Also, since each participant is retired, they were asked about their levels of organizational commitment and job involvement during their former job. Perceptions of these two variables may be different now that the participants are out of work, such as participants having a more positive attitude toward how committed they were to their job now that they do not have to work there.

Future Research

As stated in the literature review, research on bridge employment is scarce and though it is a growing area of interest, there are still many things left to be investigated. The evidence gained from the present study can help propel future research and further the area of retirement research. The research that would best advance this area would be to conduct longitudinal studies of individuals while they are still employed and approaching retirement. Researchers could follow employees and assess their levels of commitment, job involvement, satisfaction, and other important organizational and personality factors. Doing this while individuals are still employed, on into their retirement, and potentially into bridge employment will gain valuable insight into what drives retired individuals to want to come back to work and otherwise predicts their

return to work. There will soon be a surge in older workers who enter retirement, and this is the optimal time to begin longitudinal research in this area. A replication of this study in another setting that may be more reliable, such as retirement community or a Qualtrics Panel, would be valuable in truly understanding the effects each variable has on willingness to mentor.

Future research can further assess the predictors that influence the return to work as a mentor, as well as other bridge employment options that are attractive to retirees, such as volunteering or starting a new business. Generativity may greatly influence the desire to return to work to mentor younger employees, however there may be other components that contribute to the decision to start a new business post-retirement. This can also be said for commitment and job involvement, as those may not be determinates of the decision for retirees to volunteer or become entrepreneurs; there may be other former organizational (or life) influences that ultimately impact that decision.

Finally, research can also assess the perspective of the employer to determine what their needs are and their interest in providing work options for retirees. Researchers can also investigate programs that would be most realistic for organizations to implement to be mutually beneficial for them, current employees, and bridge workers. It is equally as important to identify and understand the types of people who would want to return to work as it is the factors that would attract organizations to this option. Ultimately, it is crucial that researchers continue to examine retirement and bridge employment so that we may understand this developing trend and best help organizations and retirees.

Practical Implications

Many practical implications may be gained from the results of this study. The results indicated that affective organizational commitment and job involvement are influential in a retirees' decision to return to work, specifically as a mentor. This becomes increasingly impactful when retirees are presented with the option to return to their former organization or a different one. This information helps organizations identify areas in which they can enhance if the benefits of bridge employment are of interest. Organizations who want to utilize human resource techniques to build affective commitment may do so prior to retirement to influence bridge employment and mentoring interest and decisions. Research has shown that enhancing organizational justice, providing more support, and making the overall employee experience more positive can help in strengthening commitment (Meyer et al., 2002). Organizational policies may be developed to encourage more senior employees to take a bridge job at the same company prior to full retirement. Though retirees in this sample indicated that they would be more interested in returning to mentor at their former organization than a different organization, there were still many people who would choose a different organization. By developing a policy or program in the organization that encourages retirees and provides opportunities for older workers and retired employees to return to (or continue in) the firm, organizations can attract and retain the talent they want and need before those individuals go elsewhere to meet their needs.

Results from the exploratory analyses showed that individuals are somewhat interested in or intend to return to work and that commitment and job involvement are

related to those attitudes. Since return to work interest and intentions are significantly positively related to willingness to mentor, organizations may also identify who is interested in or wants to return to work and target those individuals in recruitment efforts. Organizations may do this by including generativity, affective organizational commitment, and job involvement questions in their annual surveys to identify those employees who may be more likely to come back and mentor and start gauging their interest in that early or take steps to set up a return to work as a mentor plan. This is especially important since the results of this study indicated that lower levels of affective commitment and job involvement deter people from mentoring at their former firm and encourage them to seek mentoring opportunities at another organization.

Research has supported the idea of mentoring relationships being an antecedent for adulthood generativity (Hastings et al., 2015), so organizations could identify potential employees who have a history of mentoring in order to determine who may be likely to return to work for generative reasons. There is also prior evidence, which is also supported by the results from this study, that those who have had a mentor before are more likely to engage in or have interest in engaging in another mentoring relationship in the future, so it may be beneficial for companies to recognize this cyclical nature and make efforts to start a mentoring program for their organization and promote this as a bridge work option. This would help retirees from the company ease into full retirement, while also spreading the knowledge and skills necessary for success on to rising talent and be a cost-effective way of doing so, since retirees are less concerned about pay and more concerned about giving back.

Exploratory analyses also indicated that for individuals who were interested in and willing to mentor, though financially comfortable, pay was an important component of their decision to mentor, especially when mentoring would be frequent. Participants also were most interested in providing informational/appraisal and career development/professional support. This is information organizations can utilize when designing an attractive mentoring program for bridge workers. Ultimately, mentoring programs within an organization would cultivate a continuous transfer of knowledge and future generation leaders will be more prepared and willing to contribute to the transfer of leadership through bridge employment mentoring.

Conclusion

As older workers begin to enter retirement, post-retirement options will be sought to ease the transition. The present study suggests that many retired individuals are interested in mentor relationships with younger generations, and there are organizational and personal factors that this study has shown contributes to that interest. Organizational commitment and job involvement are two organizational factors that this study shows are positively related to willingness to mentor. Generativity is a personal component that enhances the relationship between job involvement and willingness to mentor, along with the decision to mentor in their former organization. Bridge employment opportunities and options available to retirees, along with motivational factors of employers and individuals, needs to continue to be researched to best be prepared for and helpful as many transition into retirement.

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Figures

Figure 1.

Model Hypothesis 2

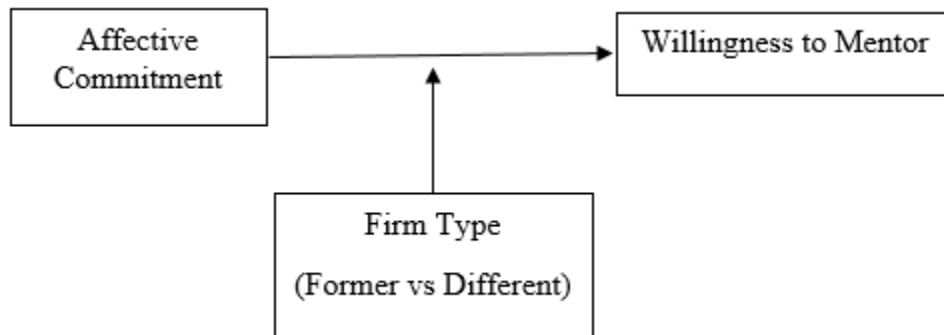


Figure 2.

Model Hypothesis 3

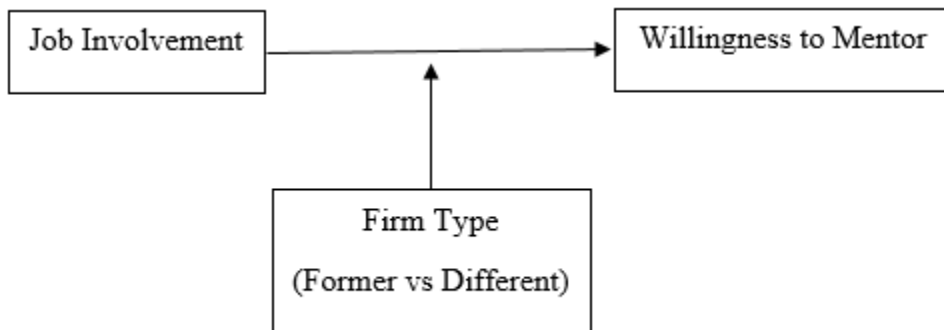


Figure 3.

Model Hypothesis 4

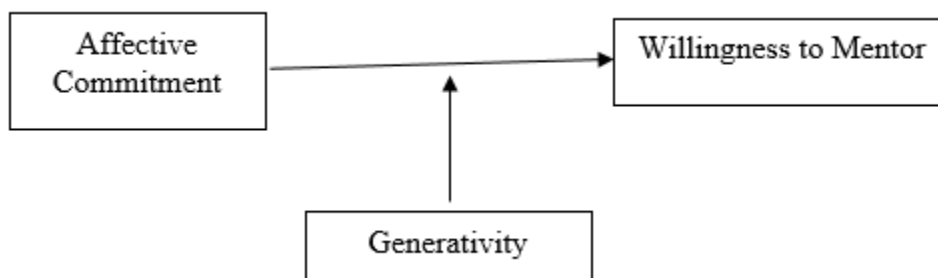


Figure 4.

Model Hypothesis 5

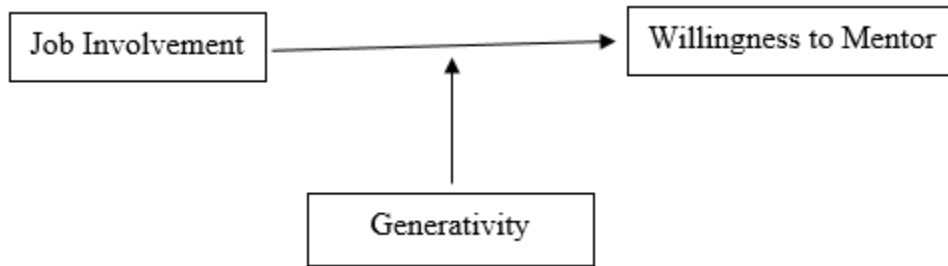


Figure 5.

Effect of Generativity on Willingness to Mentor

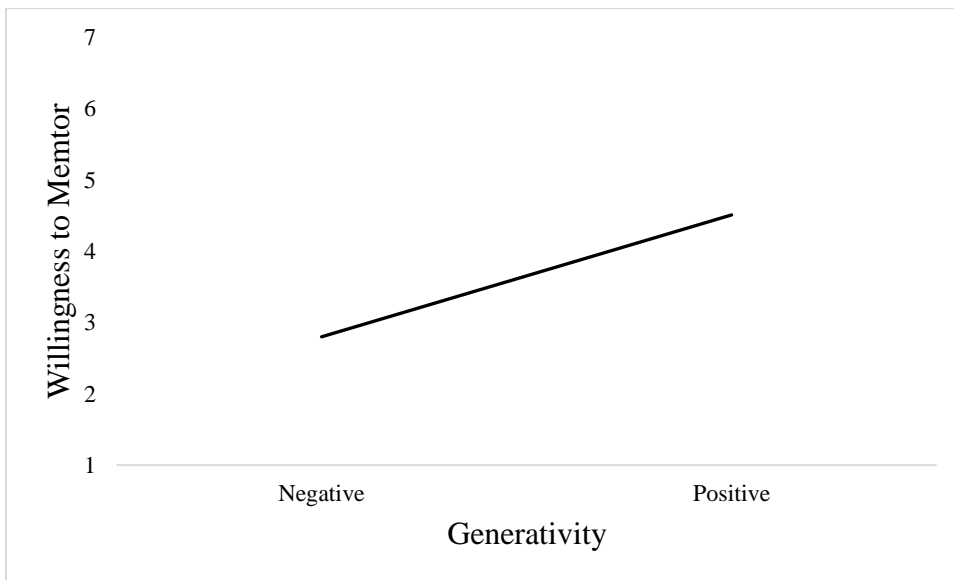


Figure 6.

Interaction between affective commitment and generativity on willingness to mentor among participants 60 years of age and older

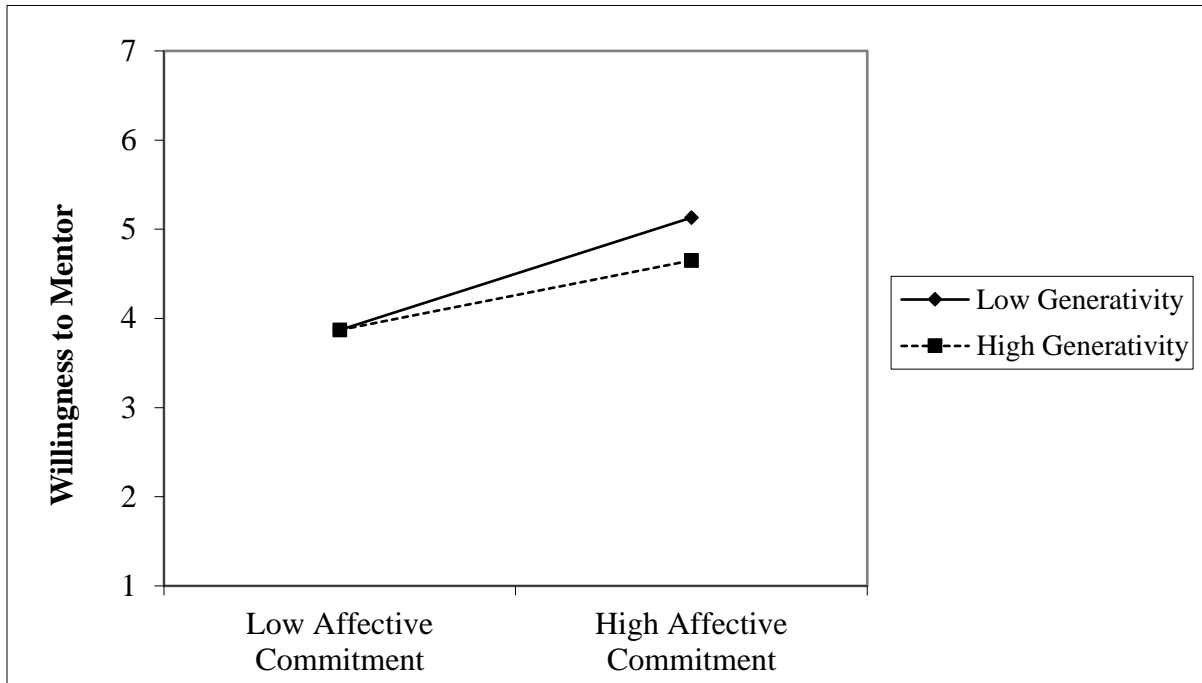


Figure 7.

Interaction between job involvement and generativity on willingness to mentor among participants 60 years of age and older



Tables

Table 1.

Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Scale Reliabilities

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Affective Commitment	5.30	1.34	(.95)						
Job Involvement	4.79	1.30	.65**	(.94)					
Generativity	5.48	1.07	.75**	.52**	(.92)				
Organization Type	-	-	-	-	-	--			
			.40**	.31**	.29**				
Financial Comfort	5.13	1.45	.32**	.19**	.35**	-	--		
						.21**			
Financial Need	3.88	1.82	.04	.09	-.14*	.08	-	--	
							.31**		
Willingness to Mentor	4.36	1.51	.48**	.52**	.38**	-	.28**	.14*	(.90)
						.42**			

*. Correlation significant at .05 level, **. Correlation significant at the .01 level

Table 2.

Means and standard deviations of all predictor variables' willingness to mentor of participants over the age of 60

	M	SD
Former Organization	4.68	1.34
Different Organization	3.81	1.54
Affective Commitment	4.32	1.48
Job Involvement	4.33	1.48
Generativity	4.32	1.48

Table 3.

Age of Participants

Age	Percentage
20-29	9.4%
30-29	5.2%
40-49	4.2%
50-59	17.4%
60-69	52.5%
70-80	11.3%

Table 4.

Regression of generativity as a predictor of willingness to mentor

Predictors	Unstandardized B	SE	R ²	ΔR ²	p-value
Constant	.58	.55			
Financial Need	.17	.05			.002
Generativity	.57	.09	.18	.16	.000

Table 5.

Moderated regression of affective commitment and generativity as predictors of willingness to mentor among participants age 60 and over.

Predictors	Unstandardized B	SE	R ²	ΔR ²	p-value
Constant	4.38	.27			
Financial Need	.01	.06			
Affective Commitment	.51	.13			
Generativity	-.12	.17			
Affective Commitment * Generativity	-.12	.05	.26	.03	.03

Table 6.

Moderated regression of job involvement and generativity as predictors of willingness to mentor among participants age 60 and older.

Predictors	Unstandardized B	SE	R ²	ΔR ²	p-value
Constant	4.47	.27			
Financial Need	-.01	.06			
Job Involvement	.48	.10			
Generativity	-.004	.14			
Job Involvement * Generativity	-.13	.06	.30	.03	.02

Table 7.

LSD Comparison for Preferred Frequency to Mentor on Willingness to Mentor

Comparisons	Mean Difference (I- J)	Std. Error	95% CI	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Weekly vs One time	2.37**	0.48	1.42	3.32
Weekly vs As needed	1.13**	0.31	0.51	1.75
Bi-monthly vs One time	2.22*	0.51	1.21	3.22
Bi-monthly vs As needed	.98*	0.36	0.27	1.66
Monthly vs One time	1.73*	0.55	0.65	2.81
Quarterly vs One time	1.71*	0.76	0.21	3.22
One time vs As needed	-1.24*	0.53	-2.29	-0.19

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 8.

Correlations between Age and Independent and Dependent Study Variables of participants age 60 and over

	<i>r</i>	p-value
Age	--	
Affective Commitment	-.01	.93
Generativity	.12	.15
Job Involvement	.01	.93
Willingness to Mentor	.10	.23
Interest in Return to Work at Former Organization	.06	.48
Interest in Return to Work at Different Organization	.08	.38
Intent in Return to Work at Former Organization	.07	.42

Intent in Return to Work at Different Organization	.12	.18
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Table 9.

LSD Comparison for Former Occupation on Willingness to Mentor

95% CI

Comparisons	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Management vs Community and Social Service	1.26*	0.63	.01	2.51
Management vs Protective Services	1.31*	0.63	0.06	2.56
Business and Financial vs Personal Care and Service	-2.31*	1.07	-3.34	.88
Computer and Mathematics vs Personal Care and Service	-2.23*	1.09	-4.39	-.07
Architecture and Engineering vs Community and Social Service	1.67*	0.73	0.27	3.17
Architecture and Engineering vs Office and Administrative Support	1.36*	0.63	0.11	2.60
Community and Social Service vs Healthcare Practitioners	-1.81*	0.81	-3.43	-0.20
Community and Social Service vs Personal Care and Service	-3.02*	1.20	-5.39	-.66
Education, Training, Library vs Architecture and Engineering	-1.31*	.56	-2.41	-.20
Education, Training, Library vs Personal Care and Service	-2.67*	1.10	-4.84	-.49
Healthcare Practitioners vs Office and Administrative Support	1.50*	.72	.07	2.93

* $p < .05$

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: DEMOGRAPHICS

Please select your gender.

- a. Male
- b. Female

Please indicate your age. ____

Which ethnicity do you best identify with?

- a. White/Caucasian
- b. Black/African American
- c. Hispanic or Latino
- d. Asian
- e. Native American
- f. Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander
- g. Other

What is the highest degree or level of school you have completed?

- a. Some high school, no diploma
- b. High school graduate
- c. Some college, no degree
- d. Associate degree
- e. Bachelor's degree
- f. Master's degree
- g. Professional/Doctorate degree

How would you rate your health at this time?

- a. Far below average
- b. Moderately below average
- c. Slightly below average
- d. Average
- e. Slightly above average
- f. Moderately above average
- g. Far above average

For how many years have you been retired? ____

For how many years did you work at your previous organization? ____

For how many years did you work in your previous occupation? ____

Do you have previous mentoring experience? (Check all that apply)

- a. Yes, as a mentor
 - a. At former organization
 - b. Outside of former organization
- b. Yes, as a mentee
 - a. At former organization
 - b. Outside of former organization
- c. No

Have you done any work since you have been retired?

- a. Yes
 - Check all that apply:
 - a. Full time
 - b. Part time
 - c. For pay
 - d. Volunteer
- b. No

Select the group your former occupation best falls under.

- a. Management
- b. Business and Financial Operations
- c. Computer and Mathematical
- d. Architecture and Engineering
- e. Life, Physical, and Social Science
- f. Community and Social Service
- g. Legal
- h. Education, Training, and Library
- i. Arts, Design, Entertainment, Sports, and Media
- j. Healthcare Practitioners and Technical
- k. Healthcare Support
- l. Protective Service
- m. Food Preparation and Serving Related
- n. Building and Grounds Cleaning and Maintenance
- o. Personal Care and Service
- p. Sales and Related
- q. Office and Administrative Support
- r. Farming, Fishing, and Forestry
- s. Construction and Extraction
- t. Installation, Maintenance, and Repair
- u. Production
- v. Transportation and Material Moving

What was your former job? (Type 999 if you prefer not to answer) _____

What is your total annual income before taxes?

- a. Less than \$19,999
- b. \$20,000 - \$39,000
- c. \$40,000 - \$59,000
- d. \$60,000 - \$79,000
- e. \$80,000 - \$99,000
- f. \$100,000 - \$149,000
- g. \$150,000 +

I would mentor purely because of financial need. Please indicate your response on a scale of (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree.

- a. Strongly disagree
- b. Disagree
- c. Somewhat disagree
- d. Neither agree nor disagree
- e. Somewhat agree
- f. Agree
- g. Strongly agree

I am financially comfortable. Please indicate on a scale of (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree.

- a. Strongly disagree
- b. Disagree
- c. Somewhat disagree
- d. Neither agree nor disagree
- e. Somewhat agree
- f. Agree
- g. Strongly agree

APPENDIX B: AFFECTIVE ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT SCALE

Think about the last organization you worked for prior to retirement and your attitudes towards that organization. Please indicate on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) your response to each statement below.

1. I felt a strong sense of belonging to my organization.
2. I felt personally attached to my work organization.
3. Working at my organization had a great deal of personal meaning to me.
4. I was happy to work at my organization until I retired.
5. I really felt that problems faced by my organization were also my problems.
6. I felt like part of the family at my organization.

APPENDIX C: JOB INVOLVEMENT SCALE

Think about the last job that you had prior to retirement and your attitudes towards and behaviors during that job. Please indicate on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) your response to each statement below.

1. The most important things that happened to me involved my work.
2. I used to live, eat, and breathe my job.
3. Most of my interests were centered around my job.
4. I had very strong ties with my former job that were very difficult to break.
5. Most of my personal life goals were job-oriented.
6. I considered my job to be very central to my existence.
7. I was very personally involved in my job.
8. I liked to be absorbed in my job.
9. My job was a large part of self.
10. My job was a very important part of my life.

APPENDIX D: LOYOLA GENERATIVITY SCALE

For each of the following statements, please indicate on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) how strongly the statement applies to you.

1. I try to pass along the knowledge I have gained through my experiences.
2. I have made and created things that have had an impact on other people.
3. I have important skills that I try to teach others.
4. In general, my actions have a positive effect on other people.
5. I feel as though I have made valuable contributions to those I worked with.
6. I have a responsibility to improve the organization in which I work.
7. People come to me for advice.

APPENDIX E: BRIDGE EMPLOYMENT SCALE

1. Which of the following best describes your current work situation?
 - a. Not working (for pay) at all
 - b. Working part-time in the same field as before I retired
 - c. Working part-time in a different field than before I retired
 - d. Working full-time (more than 30 hours a week) in the same field as before I retired
 - e. Working full-time (more than 30 hours a week) in a different field than before I retired

Please indicate on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) your response to each question below.

2. I am interested in returning to work in some capacity.
 - a. At my former organization
 - i. For pay
 - ii. Volunteer
 - iii. Doing my former job
 - iv. Doing something different than my former job
 - b. At a different organization
 - i. For pay
 - ii. Volunteer
 - iii. Doing my former job
 - iv. Doing something different than my former job
3. I intend to return to work in some capacity.
 - a. At my former organization
 - i. For pay
 - ii. Volunteer
 - iii. Doing my former job
 - iv. Doing something different than my former job
 - b. At a different organization
 - i. For pay
 - ii. Volunteer
 - iii. Doing my former job
 - iv. Doing something different than my former job

APPENDIX F: WILLINGNESS TO MENTOR SCALE

One way retired individuals may return to work is as a mentor. A mentor is an individual influential in the work environment (in a part-time role) who has advanced experience and knowledge and can help prepare junior organization members for further organizational responsibilities. Please indicate on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) your response to each question below.

1. I would like to be a mentor at my former organization.
2. I would like to be a mentor at a different organization.
3. I intend to be a mentor.
 - a. at my former organization
 - b. at a different organization
3. I would be comfortable assuming a mentoring role.
 - a. at my former organization
 - b. at a different organization
4. If I had you had to choose, where would you most prefer to mentor?
 - a. Former organization
 - b. Different organization

If yes to willing to mentor:

5. How often would you prefer to be available to mentor? (choose all that apply)
 - a. Weekly
 - i. On a scale of (1) extremely unimportant to (7) extremely important, how important would it be to be paid if you were to mentor on a weekly basis?
 - b. Twice a month
 - i. On a scale of (1) extremely unimportant to (7) extremely important, how important would it be to be paid if you were to mentor on a bi-weekly basis?
 - c. Monthly
 - i. On a scale of (1) extremely unimportant to (7) extremely important, how important would it be to be paid if you were to mentor on a monthly basis?
 - d. Quarterly
 - i. On a scale of (1) extremely unimportant to (7) extremely important, how important would it be to be paid if you were to mentor quarterly?
 - e. Twice a year

- i. On a scale of (1) extremely unimportant to (7) extremely important, how important would it be to be paid if you were to mentor twice a year?
 - f. Annually
 - i. On a scale of (1) extremely unimportant to (7) extremely important, how important would it be to be paid if you were to mentor annually?
 - g. One time
 - i. On a scale of (1) extremely unimportant to (7) extremely important, how important would it be to be paid if you were to mentor once?
 - h. As needed by organization
 - i. On a scale of (1) extremely unimportant to (7) extremely important, how important would it be to be paid if you were to mentor as needed by the organization?
- 6.** How interested are you in the following types of mentoring interaction(s) to you? Please indicate your interest on a scale from (1) extremely uninterested to (7) extremely interested.
- a. One-on-one sessions
 - b. Open forum Q&A
 - c. Presentation of your choosing
 - d. Luncheon social
 - e. Virtual meetings
- 7.** How interested are you in providing the following types of mentoring support? Please indicate your interest on a scale from (1) extremely uninterested to (7) extremely interested.
- a. Career development/Professional support (job-specific transfer of knowledge and skills)
 - b. Emotional support (offering of empathy, concern, affection, encouragement)
 - c. Tangible support (financial assistance, material goods/services)
 - d. Informational/Appraisal support (advice, guidance, suggestions)